

MAKERS AND DEFENDERS OF AMERICA



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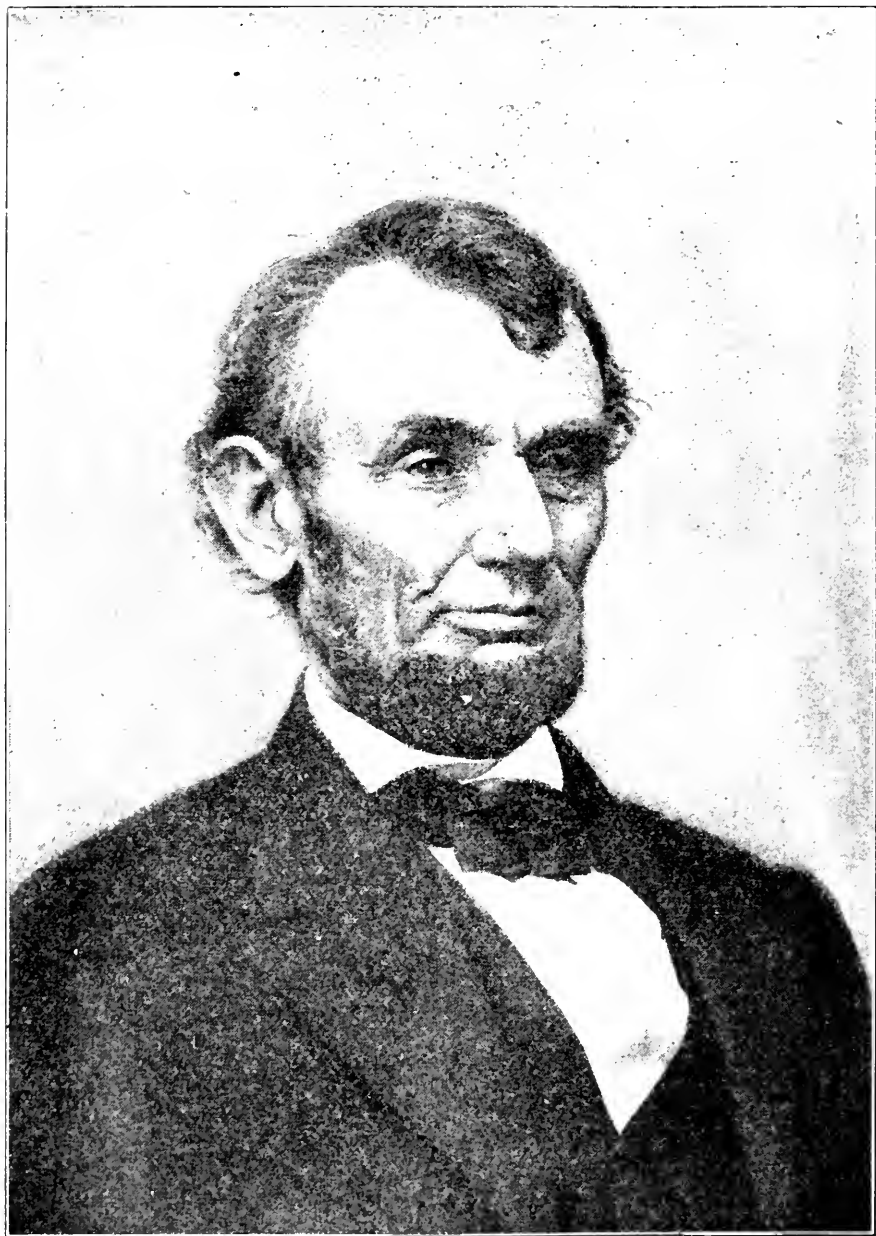
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ABRAHAM LINCOLN

MAKERS AND DEFENDERS OF AMERICA

BY

ANNA ELIZABETH FOOTE

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS
JAMAICA, NEW YORK

AND

AVERY WARNER SKINNER

STATE INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
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MAKERS AND DEFENDERS OF AMERICA

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PREFACE

THIS volume is the second of a series of two books, intended to present in a simple manner the history of America by means of the biographies of the men who found and made it. Each volume, however, is entirely independent, so that the books can be used separately where desired. The first book, "Explorers and Founders of America," traced our history from its beginnings, in the travels of Marco Polo and the voyages of the Northmen, through the period of exploration and settlement to the end of the French and Indian War. It told the stories of the Spanish adventurers who, in their lust for gold, conquered empires, only to lose them again through misuse of power; of the hardy French voyageurs who sought to plant the cross of Christ and the lilies of France in a New World and who, in the fulfillment of their purpose, explored the great river systems of the middle West; of the sturdy Dutch farmers who laid well the foundations of the Empire State; and of our English ancestors who found broad acres and fertile fields awaiting them in their new home across the sea. Some of them were men of action, brave and sometimes cruel, who sought fresh fields of adventure; others were colony builders, who strove to establish settlements where they might worship God untrammelled by the faiths of the Old World.

The second volume continues the series of historical biographies begun in "Explorers and Founders of America." It commences, where that book ended, with the close of the French and Indian War, and treats characters typical of a movement or of a period up to the present time. It traces the growth of our nation through the lives of its great leaders, men of thought, whose ideas shaped the policies and established the present

prosperity of our country. While in the main the emphasis is placed on the personal element, some narrative of events has seemed advisable. In this way a continuous story is made possible without losing the idea of personality which attracts the youthful mind. The sketches include not only the lives of great statesmen and of military heroes, but also biographies of some of the men and women whose philanthropy has made our country happier or whose inventive genius has advanced its civilization and, with it, the civilization of the world. It is hoped that these triumphs of peace and of constructive statesmanship, as well as the stirring days and brave deeds of war, will appeal to growing boys and girls. If the lives of these men and the records of the past arouse a love of country, teach the value of courage and of self-denial, and mold character, this little book will justify its existence. The authors desire to acknowledge the courtesy of Mr. Thomas A. Edison, of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, and of Admiral George B. Dewey in revising the sketches relating to them. We are also under obligation to Miss Clara Barton for the principal facts in the story of her life.

It may be noted that, while this book is fitted for use in any grammar grade, it conforms fully to the requirements for the sixth grade work in history as outlined in the syllabus for elementary schools, issued by the Education Department of the State of New York. It also covers the sixth grade work for the schools of the city of New York.

We have striven to create the historical atmosphere. We have used the material necessary to weave a story concrete enough for children to share the experience and participate in the events narrated. Our aim has been to make the characters real to the child, for by doing so we shall lay a foundation and arouse a love for the further study of history.

ANNA ELIZABETH FOOTE,
AVERY WARNER SKINNER.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION	9
PATRICK HENRY	13
SAMUEL ADAMS	20
WAR BEGINS — LEXINGTON AND CONCORD	30
BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL	34
GEORGE WASHINGTON, THE YOUNG VIRGINIAN	38
GEORGE WASHINGTON, SOLDIER AND STATESMAN	51
SCHUYLER AND SARATOGA — 1777	74
GENERAL NATHANAEL GREEN	89
NATHAN HALE — THE MARTYR SPY	98
JOHN PAUL JONES — FOUNDER OF THE AMERICAN NAVY	103
THE CRITICAL PERIOD	111
THOMAS JEFFERSON	117
ALEXANDER HAMILTON	129
DANIEL BOONE AND WESTERN SETTLEMENTS	141
THE WAR OF 1812	149
NAVAL HEROES OF THE WAR OF 1812 — OLIVER HAZARD	
PERRY AND BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE	152
MACDONOUGH AND THE BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN	156
LAFAYETTE — A LOYAL FRIEND TO THE UNITED STATES	162
ANDREW JACKSON — WAR HERO AND PRESIDENT	168
HENRY CLAY, THE GREAT PEACEMAKER	178
DANIEL WEBSTER, THE DEFENDER OF THE CONSTITUTION	191
INVENTIONS AND INVENTORS	205
ELI WHITNEY AND THE COTTON GIN	205
ELIAS HOWE	209

	PAGE
COMMERCE AND TRAVEL	213
ROBERT FULTON AND THE STEAMBOAT	213
THE ERIE CANAL — CLINTON'S GREAT WORK	219
GEORGE STEPHENSON AND THE STEAM RAILWAY	223
ABRAHAM LINCOLN	230
GRANT, THE SILENT LEADER	258
ROBERT E. LEE, THE CAPTAIN OF THE BOYS IN GRAY	274
ADMIRAL FARRAGUT AND THE WORK OF THE NAVY	288
OTHER NAVAL EXPLOITS	294
CAPTAIN WINSLOW AND THE ALABAMA	295
LIEUTENANT CUSHING AND THE ALBEMARLE	296
CLARA BARTON AND THE RLD CROSS SOCIETY	298
THE PERIOD OF TRANSITION AND DEVELOPMENT	302
CYRUS HALL MCCORMICK AND THE REAPER	305
MORSE AND THE ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH	309
EDISON AND THE ELECTRIC LIGHT	317
ADMIRAL DEWEY AND THE SPANISH WAR	323
ANDREW CARNEGIE — THE PHILANTHROPIST	330
<hr/>	
THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE	I
CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES	5
INDEX	17

MAKERS AND DEFENDERS OF AMERICA

CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

WE sometimes forget, in our enjoyment of free schools, free churches, and a free press, that there was a time in the history of our country when personal liberty existed only in a limited degree. Less than a hundred and fifty years ago we had no separate, independent government, but were British subjects. There was no United States and no President, but, instead, thirteen separate colonies ruled by governors sent over by George III, the king of Great Britain, or king of England, as he is more often called. As most of the colonists were English, either by birth or by descent, they were loyal to the mother country and regarded their king with affection and respect. At banquets a toast was always drunk to the health of the king, statues were erected in his honor, and the bands played "God save the King" as to-day they play "America," or "The Star Spangled Banner."

How the colonists gradually lost their love for their king, and how the spirit of liberty gradually grew among them, is an interesting and sometimes a sad story. Let us consider some of the causes which led the Americans to cast off their allegiance to England and to establish an independent nation.

By the treaty of 1763 which closed the French and Indian War, England gained from France, Canada and the land

claimed by her east of the Mississippi River. England knew that this territory must be protected or the French in time would reconquer it. Money was needed for the 10,000 soldiers that were sent to America for that purpose. England was in debt and this debt was due largely to the war that had concerned the colonies. She reasoned, also, that the presence of the soldiers would be a protection to the colonists, hence they should contribute to the support of them.

To help raise the money, the English government, then under the influence of King George and the ministers he appointed, revived old navigation laws, one of which, called the Sugar and Molasses Act, led to much trouble. This law placed a tax on all sugar and molasses that came from any place but the British West Indies. The people of New England had long carried on a flourishing trade with the French West Indies, exchanging almost worthless salt fish for sugar and molasses which they distilled into rum. This rum they took to the African coasts and exchanged for negroes whom they brought back and sold as slaves in the South. As the profits from this traffic would be greatly reduced by the tax, they tried to evade it by smuggling.

The English officers were almost powerless to enforce the law. Therefore they made use of general search warrants called Writs of Assistance. These writs differed from the regular search warrants in that they contained neither the name of the informer nor the description of the property to be searched. A man having such a writ could search any man's property at any time. The people of New England bitterly resented this practice. James Otis, a young lawyer, then holding an office under the government, resigned his position in order to plead the cause of the people. He

declared that the use of Writs of Assistance was an act of tyranny similar to the abuse of power that had cost one king of England his head and another his throne. He also claimed that such writs violated the rights that Englishmen had enjoyed for more than five hundred years. The speeches of James Otis were very bold, and are considered by some as being the first step of the American Revolution.

Many men accused of smuggling were tried in courts without a jury. This was another serious grievance, for the colonists claimed that as Englishmen they should not be punished except by the judgment of their equals.



James Otis

By 1765 the English Parliament¹ saw that the trade laws had not only failed to bring in the necessary money, but had stirred up a rebellious spirit among the colonists. The Stamp Act was then passed as a substitute. This act provided that every legal document, deed, pamphlet, almanac, or newspaper must be written or printed on stamped paper. The prices of the stamps varied from half a cent to fifty dollars.

The Stamp Act was passed in March and was to go into effect the first of November, 1765. When the news reached America, the disapproval was more widespread than that caused by the trade laws. Whereas those laws had affected principally merchants and shippers in the seaport towns,

¹ Parliament is the lawmaking body of England, as Congress is of the United States. It consists of a hereditary House of Lords and a House of Commons elected by the people.

the Stamp Act would affect all classes of business men, including those in the interior towns and cities. Indeed, every man who bought a newspaper would be reminded that he was taxed by a government outside of America. James Otis spoke and wrote against this law and aroused people throughout New England; but the work of Patrick Henry of Virginia is more important.



Stamps used in 1765

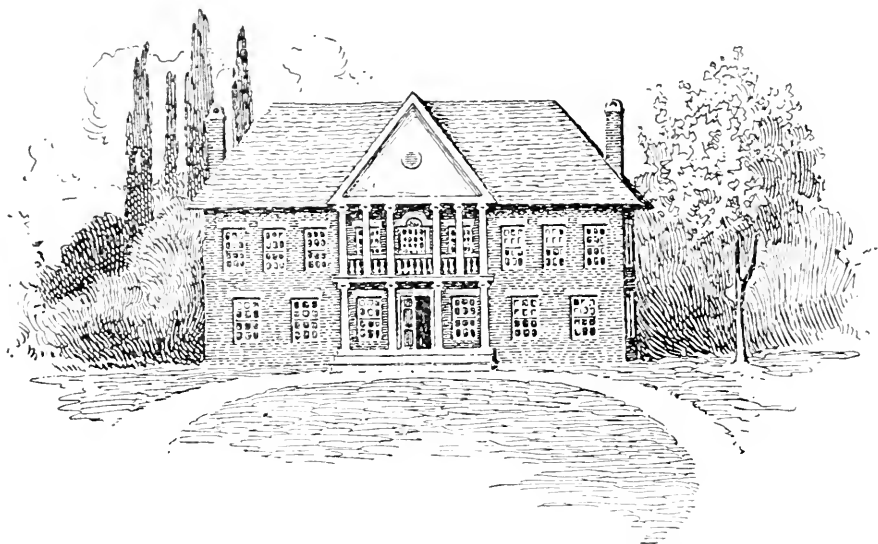
PATRICK HENRY

PATRICK HENRY was the son of a Scotch lawyer, and was born in Virginia in 1736. As a boy he cared little for study, and, although he was tutored and sent to school, he made little progress. He loved out-of-door life. He took long solitary tramps in the woods. He spent many summer days fishing and became a boon companion of the trappers in his neighborhood. All of this freedom had its influence on the growing boy. Through it he gained robust health and a frank, independent way of looking at life.

When Patrick was fifteen, his father put him in a country store. Remaining here a year, he then began business for himself. This, however, was not to his taste, and after a year and a half he gave it up as a failure. For the next six years he tried various lines of employment, but found nothing that appealed to him. He had become a great reader and was especially fond of history. He had a fine musical voice, and was regarded as a good speaker and a clever reasoner. At twenty-three, he began to study law, and after a very short time he was admitted to the bar. At last he had found his vocation. He may have moved juries more by his manner of speaking than by his knowledge of law, but he certainly won cases, and as a result his business grew rapidly.

In May, 1765, after the passage of the Stamp Act, Patrick Henry, then twenty-nine years of age, became a member of the House of Burgesses at Williamsburg, which was then the capital of Virginia. The historian Cooke says he was "tall

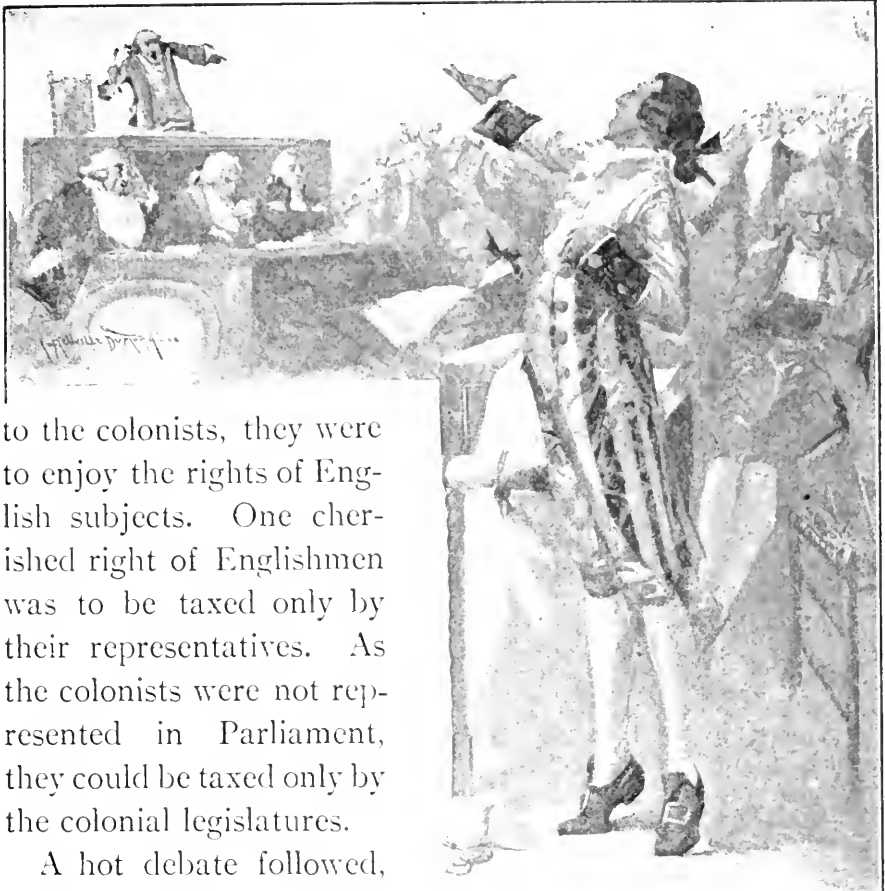
in figure but stooping, with a grim expression, small blue eyes which had a peculiar twinkle, and wore a brown wig without powder, a peach-blossom coat and yarn stockings.”



House of Burgesses at Williamsburg, Virginia

At this time the Stamp Act was the most absorbing topic in men's minds. It was objectionable to all people, but what could be done about it? There were in the House of Burgesses many wealthy planters who considered it less obnoxious than the trade laws. Others saw in the law a violation of the rights of the colonists. Among that number was the recently elected young lawyer, Patrick Henry. He was eager that Virginia should place herself at once on record as decidedly opposed to the law.

Finally, after three weeks of much talk and no action, impatient over the attitude of the leaders, Patrick Henry hastily wrote on the blank leaf of an old law book some resolutions, then sprang to his feet and offered them to the House. These resolutions stated that by the charters granted



to the colonists, they were to enjoy the rights of English subjects. One cherished right of Englishmen was to be taxed only by their representatives. As the colonists were not represented in Parliament, they could be taxed only by the colonial legislatures.

A hot debate followed, during which Patrick Henry made a most remarkable speech. He closed with the words: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third — " "Treason!"¹ "Treason!" was shouted through the room. The young orator paused a moment and glanced at the angry

Patrick Henry's Speech

¹ In the United States, treason consists in taking up arms against the United States or in giving aid to the enemy in time of war; and its punishment is death. In the days of Patrick Henry, many lesser offenses were regarded as treason.

and excited Burgesses, then continued — “George the Third may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.” The resolutions were passed.

The fearless but inexperienced young man had won a great victory. Couriers and newspapers carried to every part of the colonies news of Patrick Henry’s speech and the action of the Virginia House of Burgesses. The spirit of resistance to the Stamp Act grew. In October, a Congress was called in New York which passed formal resolutions declaring the rights of the colonists as Englishmen and stating how those rights had been violated. These resolutions were sent to the king and to Parliament.

The Stamp Act was to go into effect on November first. That day was observed as a day of mourning in all the cities. Funeral processions paraded the streets, bells tolled, and flags floated at half-mast. Newspapers were printed with black borders, and all business was suspended for the day, because liberty was dead. By this time merchants had agreed to import no more goods from England. The natural result of this was an injury to English trade with the colonies, and English merchants joined with the colonists in petitioning Parliament to repeal the law. It was at this time that Benjamin Franklin appeared before the House of Commons and pleaded for fair treatment of the Americans. Finally, Parliament yielded in March of the following year and repealed the Stamp Act, but at the same time asserted England’s right to tax the colonies whenever she wished.

Patrick Henry’s work was not yet done. Ten years later, when the tea tax and other objectionable measures had been passed by Parliament, and when 3000 soldiers had been sent to compel the people of Massachusetts to obey them, the First Continental Congress was called. Patrick Henry was a dele-

gate from Virginia and made the opening speech, in which he said, "I am not a Virginian, but an American." This Congress drew up some formal petitions to the king and Parliament in which they stated plainly their objections to recent acts and in most dignified language asked for fair treatment. The Congress then adjourned to meet again the next year.

About this time, the royal governor of Virginia had dismissed the House of Burgesses because they had expressed sympathy for Massachusetts. This aroused bitter feeling, and a convention of leading men was called at Richmond. Here again was Patrick Henry a leader. Some men favored immediate steps to protect life, liberty, and property. Others advised waiting, believing that the English government would never harm her colonies. Patrick Henry believed that war was sure to come and that Virginia must prepare at once to defend herself. He saw that the harsh measures of King George III in dealing with Massachusetts and in punishing Boston, which the king regarded as the hotbed of the revolutionary spirit, were a menace to the liberties of the other colonies. After listening to the endless talk of his colleagues, he arose and spoke as if inspired. At the first sound of his voice, men turned and listened with breathless attention as he said:

"We must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts is all that is left us! There is no retreat but in submission and slavery!



Patrick Henry

Our chains are forged! Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable, and let it come! I repeat it, sir, let it come!

“Gentlemen may cry peace, peace — but there is no peace. The war is actually begun! The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already on the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!”

This speech moved men to action not only in Virginia but all through the colonies, just as they had been moved ten years before. Three weeks later, Lexington and Concord had been fought, and the Revolutionary War had begun. Patrick Henry was made commander of Virginia's forces, but he was needed more in the councils of men than on the field of battle.

He served as the first governor of Virginia and occupied many other prominent positions in his state. It is interesting to note that he refused positions of honor and power under the new federal government because he did not believe in it. Neither money nor honors could tempt Patrick Henry to support any measure of which he disapproved. At the same time nothing could hinder him from speaking out fearlessly against illegal acts and unnecessary oppression. He died at the age of sixty-three, enjoying the gratitude of all Americans for his courage in demanding the rights of free men.

Topical Outline. — England sent 10,000 soldiers to hold the land acquired from France. Money to help pay these soldiers raised by taxes.

(a) Sugar and Molasses Tax; (b) Stamp Tax. Colonists complained of (a) Writs of Assistance; (b) Trial without jury; (c) Taxation without representation. Patrick Henry's resolutions.

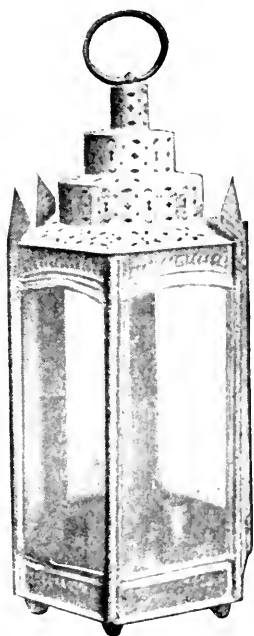
For Written Work. — Write from memory Patrick Henry's war speech before the convention at Richmond.

Map Work. — Locate Williamsburg and Richmond (p. 92).

Collateral Reading

History. — Cooke, "Stories of the Old Dominion," pp. 159-180.

Biography. — Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 92-112; Patrick Henry, "The War Inevitable."



Lantern used at Celebration
of the Repeal of the Stamp Act

SAMUEL ADAMS

WHILE Patrick Henry was urging the people of Virginia to protect their rights as Englishmen, there were men in New England working just as earnestly for the same cause. One of these men was Samuel Adams, who was born in 1722, fourteen years earlier than Patrick Henry. Although these two men had much the same ideas about government and showed the same unselfish spirit in their efforts to improve it, they were very different in habit and training.

We find Samuel Adams as a little boy showing great fondness for his books. His father was a prosperous gentleman of Boston, living in a fine house and able to give his son the best school advantages. The boy accepted them and used them well. There is a story that he was so punctual in going to school that people set their clocks and men regulated their work by him, saying: "Sam Adams has gone to school, it's time for business." This may be only an idle tale, but undoubtedly there is some good reason for its being told. Samuel Adams loved books and study. He was diligent, silent, and thoughtful long before he became a man. All his life he was fond of quoting Greek and Latin, and his quotations showed wide reading in those languages. He was graduated from Harvard College when he was eighteen, but he remained three years longer and continued his studies for a master's degree.

His family wished him to study for the ministry, but he preferred law. As his parents objected to his becoming a

lawyer, he went into business with his father. He had little taste for a business life, and undoubtedly an excellent lawyer was lost to the world when Samuel Adams was compelled to share his father's work. His reading and study continued along lines of history, politics, and law, and his business was neglected.

Samuel Adams was a prominent figure in the town meetings from the time he was a very young man. He came into special notice when he protested against the Stamp Act. Like Patrick Henry, he spoke and wrote against the injustice of this tax. He boldly declared that



Samuel Adams going to School

if the king and Parliament could levy such a tax they would soon assert the right to tax everything that the colonies possessed. Not content with words he helped to organize the "Sons of Liberty," a society banded together to destroy the stamped paper as soon as it arrived. This organization soon spread to the other colonies. It is claimed that Samuel Adams first proposed the Stamp Act Congress, which issued a Declaration of Rights and sent to the king and to the House of Commons a protest, couched

in respectful language, against the hated measure. He organized Committees of Correspondence with the other colonies to get united action against the tyranny of Parliament.

How the opposition to the Stamp Act, not only in the colonies but also in England, soon brought about its repeal has been told in the story of Patrick Henry. But England did not give up the right to tax the colonies. Other measures were passed by Parliament, chief among which was a tax on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colors imported into the colonies. This measure was equally hateful to the colonists, and the spirit of resistance became so great that in 1769 two regiments of English soldiers were sent to Boston to overawe the people. The royal Governor Hutchinson was very glad to have them to help him enforce the laws. These soldiers should have been stationed in the empty barracks at Castle William in the harbor, but instead quarters were hired for them in the city. The people were naturally indignant, and very soon let the soldiers know how unwelcome they were. Even schoolboys would use the "redcoat" as a target for snowballs and bean shooters. On the other hand, the soldiers raced horses on Sunday through the streets of Boston and played and sang all sorts of improper songs before the church doors at the time of Sunday services. There were frequent encounters between citizens and soldiers. About this time, James Otis, the man who opposed the Writs of Assistance, was attacked and cut on the head during a dispute with a customs officer. The injury was so great that he suffered from it for the rest of his long life. People did not easily forget such things.

One day in March, 1770, serious trouble grew out of a trifling incident. A rope maker and a soldier got into a quarrel on the street, and an excited crowd soon collected and

hurled stones, sticks, snowballs, and chunks of ice at the soldiers who came to their comrade's assistance. The soldiers fired; three citizens were killed and eight were wounded. This is called the Boston Massacre.

A town meeting was held the next day in Faneuil Hall, and



The Boston Massacre

Samuel Adams was appointed to demand the withdrawal of the troops. He went to Governor Hutchinson, who said he would withdraw one regiment. Adams replied, "If you have power to remove one regiment you have power to remove two, and nothing less will satisfy the people." Both regiments were at once removed to Castle William, where they should have been stationed seventeen months before. This was regarded as a most decided victory for the patriots.

It was clearly understood by this time that the colonists did not object so much to paying taxes as to the principle of being taxed by the English Parliament in which they were not represented. The king and Parliament believed that

they had a right to tax the colonists, and they wanted to maintain that right. As the colonists refused to buy the things taxed by Parliament, the tax was now dropped on everything except tea. For the king often said, "There must be one tax to keep the right to tax."

In the fall of 1773 a rumor reached America that several cargoes of tea were soon to be forced on the colonies. The Committees of Correspondence, under the direction of Samuel Adams, wrote to all the cities to refuse the tea. Societies were formed of men and women who pledged themselves to use no tea so long as it was taxed, although the tax was very small.

One tea ship reached Boston, November 28, 1773. A town meeting of 5000 people was at once held, which voted to send the tea back to England. A guard of twenty-five citizens went on board the vessel to prevent the landing. Armed men watched the wharf, sentinels were stationed in church bell-fries, post-riders were chosen with horses saddled and bridled, ready to give the signal if the officers attempted to land the tea. The ship could not return to England without clearance papers, and the royal governor would not give them.

On the nineteenth day after the arrival of the tea ship, another great mass meeting was held in the Old South Church. A man had been sent to the royal governor to urge him to order the ship back to England. When the messenger returned and reported to the meeting that the governor refused, Samuel Adams rose and said, "This meeting can do no more to save the country."

Arrangements had been made to save the country in another way if the governor refused to do as the people requested. On the signal from Samuel Adams, men, dressed like Indians, gathered from all parts of Boston and rushed to

the wharf. What they did is simply told by the captain of the tea ship in his journal. "Between six and seven o'clock this evening came down to the wharf a body of about a thousand people; among them were a number dressed and whooping like Indians. They came on board ship, and after



Throwing the Tea Overboard

warning myself and the custom-house officer to get out of the way, they went down the hold where were the chests of tea which they hoisted up on deck, and cut the chests to pieces and hove the tea all overboard, where it was damaged and lost." Two other tea ships that had arrived in the meanwhile were treated in the same way.

Before nine o'clock that night, 342 chests of tea had been cut open, and tea had been made with salt water on a large scale. It was an orderly band of "Indians" that did this work. One spectator said that an Indian blanket slipped down and showed the crimson velvet sleeve and point lace ruffles

of John Hancock's regular costume. We are told that, "Not a person was harmed; no other property was injured; and the vast crowd, looking upon the scene from the wharf in the clear frosty moonlight, was so still that the click of the 'Indians' hatchets could be distinctly heard."

The next morning, Samuel Adams wrote a formal account of the work of the night before, and postriders were sent to the other colonies with it. His cousin John Adams wrote in his diary, "Last night three cargoes of tea were emptied into the sea. This morning a man-of-war sails. This is the most magnificent move of all. There is a dignity, a majesty, a sublimity in this last effort of the patriots that I greatly admire. The people should never rise without doing something to be remembered — something notable and striking. This destruction of the tea is so bold, so daring, so firm, so intrepid, and inflexible, and it must have so important consequences, and so lasting, that I cannot but consider it an epoch in history."

When the report of this "tea party" reached England, the government was most indignant. Parliament passed a bill closing the port of Boston to all vessels. The royal governor was recalled, and General Gage, the commander of the English troops in America, was ordered to Boston as military governor.

Samuel Adams then drew up an appeal to the colonies, saying: "They have ordered our port to be entirely shut up, leaving us barely so much as to keep us from perishing with cold and hunger. . . . The act fills the inhabitants with indignation. This attack though made immediately upon us, is doubtless designed for every other colony who shall not surrender their sacred rights and liberties. Now, therefore, is the time when all should be united in

opposition to this violation of the liberties of all." Replies came from all the colonies, heartily approving the conduct of Boston. Money and food supplies were sent to the people in and around the city. Such generosity might prevent the people from suffering through want, but it could not diminish the bitterness felt against England for passing such a law.

Through the Committees of Correspondence Samuel Adams urged the meeting of a Continental Congress in the fall of 1774. It was a remark-

ably self-controlled, well-bred body of men. They opposed any hasty conduct that might bring on war with the mother country, but they believed that war must come and it was better to be prepared for it. First, however, they would petition the English government for better treatment. In the meantime they recommended the collection of arms and supplies at convenient places for self-defense. They also approved of the trainbands of minutemen and urged that more be organized.



Statue of Minuteman at Concord

These minutemen were farmers and villagers, men and boys, organized in companies that "exercised" after the day's work was over. They were pledged to be ready on a minute's notice. Massachusetts had about 1800 of them early in 1775.

The following extracts are from the diary of a young minute-man:

"Jan. 11, 1775 — We went to the training field near Rev. Barnes' meeting-house. There were three companies of minute men. We were marched into the meeting-house. A prayer was made, the scripture was read and a lecture delivered to us by the Rev. Barnes. We then were marched out and exercised some more on the green.

"Jan. 17. — We exercised in a new way today called the 64th.

"Feb. 8. — I wrought on cartridge boxes all day. In the evening I cast bullets in the sand.

"Feb. 13. — In the forenoon I made my sword belt and bayonet belt. In the afternoon I made cartridge boxes and went to training early.

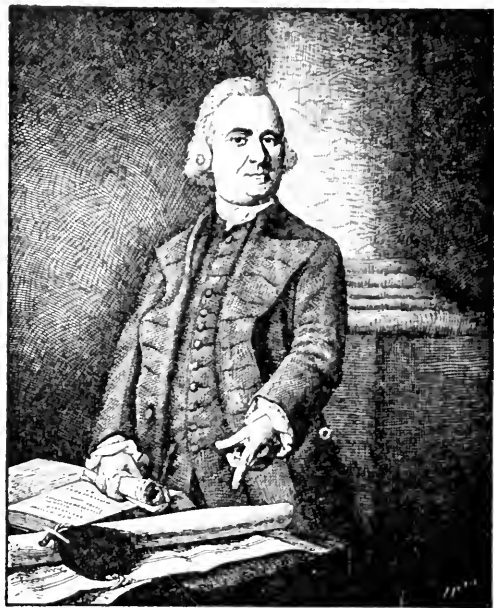
"March 21. — I spent the whole morning scowering and cleaning my gun and fixing her. After I had cleaned and oyled the lock, I put in a good flint and tried to burn three corns of powder. I cocked her and snapped and she burnt them."

In this First Continental Congress, as well as later Congresses, Samuel Adams was an important figure. The king and Parliament, recognizing how powerful was his influence throughout New England, had urged the governor to win him over to the side of the royalists. Adams was known to be a poor man, so positions carrying large salaries were offered him from time to time, but he always recognized the offer as a bribe and scorned it.

Finally, in 1775, the king wanted to be rid of such powerful enemies as Adams and John Hancock, so he ordered General Gage to have them arrested and sent to England for trial. But this was found impossible, for neither man had over-

stepped the law. The king then ordered their capture, dead or alive; but this order was not carried out, as we shall learn from the Battle of Lexington.

War came, and, like Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams had to serve in the council room instead of on the battlefield. From the first of the trouble with England he had urged independence, and probably no man in the Second Continental Congress felt happier than he over the work of July 4, 1776. After the war he was governor of Massachusetts several terms, and in 1796 he received a few votes for the presidency. He retired from public life at seventy-five and died at eighty-two.



Samuel Adams

The following tells how he looked at seventy: "He always walked with his family to and from church until his failing strength prevented. His stature was a little above medium height. He wore a tie-wig, cocked hat, buckled shoes, knee breeches and a red cloak, and held himself very erect, with the ease and address of a polite gentleman. . . . He never wore glasses in public, except when engaged in his official duties at the state house. His complexion was florid and his eyes dark blue. The eyebrows were heavy, almost to bushiness, and contrasted remarkably with the clear forehead, which at the age of 70 had few wrinkles. He had a

kind but careworn expression blended with native dignity of countenance, which never failed to impress strangers."

Although Samuel Adams was connected with political life and held the highest offices of his state, he remained a poor man all his life. Truly it can be said of him that his interest in politics was for the good of the people.

Topical Outline. — Boyhood of Samuel Adams. Opposition to the tax law. "Boston Massacre." "The Tea Party." The Port Bill passed to punish Boston. Adams's correspondence with the other colonies. First Continental Congress. War.

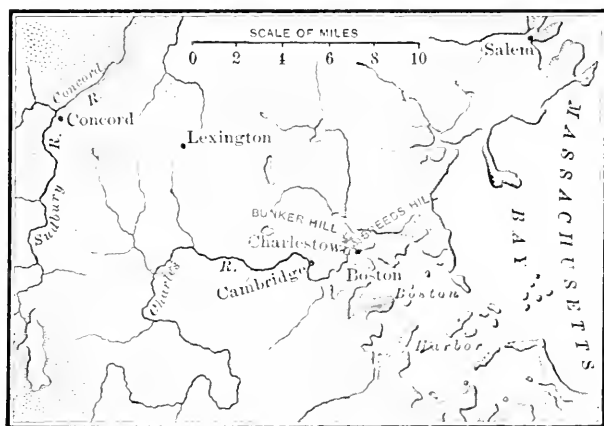
For Written Work. — I. Compare Patrick Henry's boyhood with that of Samuel Adams. II. Imagine you were one of the "Indians" and describe the tea party as you shared in it. III. As a schoolboy tell why you pelted the soldiers with snowballs.



The "Tea Party" Tablet on Long Wharf,
Boston

WAR BEGINS — LEXINGTON AND CONCORD

THE military supplies of Massachusetts had been collected in an old barn near a bridge at Concord. Knowledge of this had reached General Gage, and he decided to destroy the supplies and, if possible, to capture Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were at Lexington. Accordingly, on the night of the 18th of April, 1775, he sent for this purpose a force of troops under the command of Major Pitcairn from the British encampment in Boston. This action had been expected by



Country around Boston

the patriots, and sentinels¹ were always ready to spread the alarm if the soldiers in the city made any attempt to leave town.

One of these sentinels, Paul Revere, watching from the Charlestown side of the Charles River, saw the signal lights

¹ Read "Paul Revere's Ride."

flash out from the tower of Old North Church. Mounting a swift horse, he rode through the night toward Lexington, arousing the countryside. When he reached the village, he found militiamen guarding the house in which Adams and Hancock were asleep. They warned him not to make a



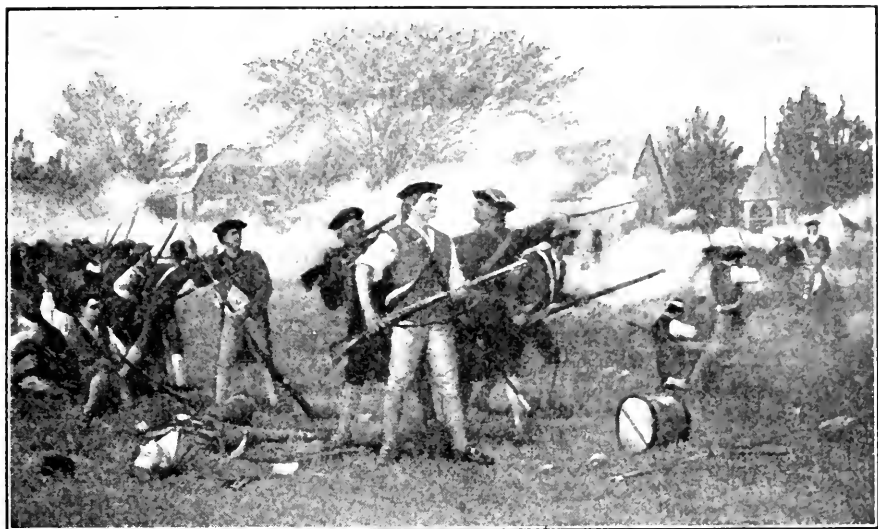
Paul Revere at the House of Hancock and Adams

noise. "Noise!" cried Revere, "You'll soon have noise enough. The regulars are coming."

When Pitcairn and his 800 regulars reached Lexington about daylight, April 19th, they were surprised to find about 150 minutemen facing them on the green in front of the church. They were also surprised to learn that the two men they wished to capture had escaped during the night, warned in time by the midnight message of Paul Revere.

Captain Parker of the minutemen, while waiting for the English, said to his men: "Stand your ground. Don't fire

unless fired upon. But if they mean to have war, let it begin here." Major Pitcairn and his red-coated soldiers marched up and haughtily faced the minutemen. The major shouted: "Disperse, ye villains, ye rebels, disperse! Lay down your arms! Why don't ye lay down your arms?" The patriots



The Fight at Lexington

moved not an inch. A shot was fired by some one. Pitcairn swore he did not order his men to fire, but they fired and eight patriots were killed. In the confusion, no one apparently waited for orders. One hundred and fifty men knew they could not long hold eight hundred in check, so they fell back, and the English soldiers moved on toward Concord.

Meanwhile minutemen "from every Middlesex village and farm" had been pouring into Concord and had removed all the supplies they could to a place of safety. Early in the afternoon the English appeared and, after burning the town-hall, pushed on to the outskirts of the village. Here at Con-

cord Bridge another skirmish was fought with the minutemen. Little damage had been done to the supplies, and few men had been killed, when the English began their retreat toward Boston. But, as Emerson says, the "embattled farmers" here had "fired a shot heard round the world."

The return trip to Boston was a sad experience to the British soldiers. The day was very hot for early spring. They had been up all night and had had little chance to eat anything during the day. Besides this, they were continually fired on by minutemen hurrying toward the Concord road from all directions. For ten miles the road was strewn with wounded "redcoats," and it was a demoralized company of soldiers that was met by reinforcements later that afternoon.

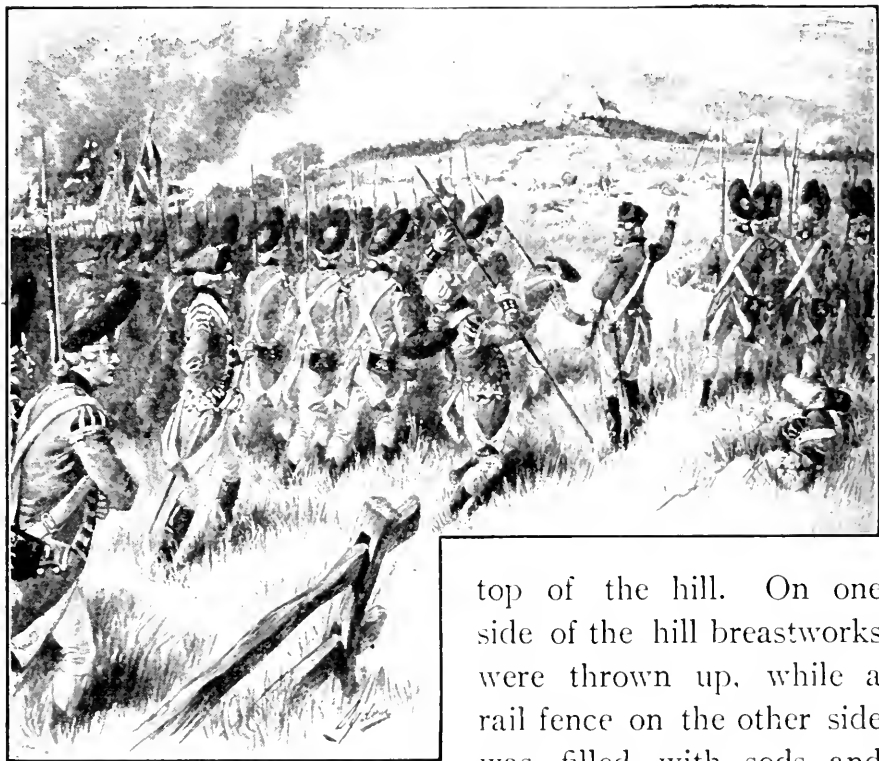
BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL

After the battles of Lexington and Concord, the patriot army, made up of nearly 20,000 minutemen, gathered about Boston and besieged it. The patriots occupied a semicircular position, cutting off all communication between the English army in the city and the interior of the state. The Second Continental Congress, then sitting in Philadelphia, appointed George Washington commander of the army, and sent troops from other colonies to Massachusetts.

Before Washington reached Cambridge in July, the men of Massachusetts had fought another battle. During May and the first two weeks in June, the patriot army was busy collecting supplies, drilling, making themselves familiar with the situation, and studying methods of defense and attack. It was decided to take Bunker Hill, back of Charlestown, as soon as possible, for this would command the city of Boston. By placing their cannon on this hill, they might be able to

drive the English out of the city. It is interesting to know that the English had also planned to fortify this hill, but did not begin to do it in time.

On the night of June 16, 1775, a force of 600 men were put at work building a redoubt about eight rods square on the



The Battle of Bunker Hill

work very quickly and quietly, for sentinels were watching on English ships in the harbor, but a few rods away; and in the silent night air the click of a shovel might betray to them what the patriots were doing.

The work was nearly completed when, just at daybreak, Captain Linzer of an English vessel noticed a stir on the hill and opened fire. Other vessels then began firing and

top of the hill. On one side of the hill breastworks were thrown up, while a rail fence on the other side was filled with sods and brush. The men had to

continued during the forenoon, but without doing much damage. General Gage, in command of the English troops, saw that if the patriots should succeed in planting siege guns on the hill they might force him to give up the city, so he planned a general attack upon the patriots' position.

It was, however, about noon before the English army, 2500 strong, began this attack. They advanced up the hill in three divisions. The patriots were sheltered behind their defenses, and when the enemy came within range of their guns, they fired, cutting down a row of men in the front rank, including officers. The English fell back, but twice they were rallied and led again to the assault. Soon after they began their third attack, the firing from the redoubt ceased. The Americans' ammunition was gone. The English then eagerly pressed on into the breastworks, where there was a hand-to-hand contest. As the patriots had no bayonets, they were unequal to the task, and about nightfall were obliged to retreat.

The English lost many officers and a much larger number of men than the Americans, but the latter were obliged to give up their position on the hill. It is called, of course, an English victory, but it was one dearly bought. A few days later, General Gage wrote to the English government as follows:

"The success, of which I send your lordships an account by the present opportunity, was very necessary in our present situation; and I wish most sincerely it had not cost so dear. The number of killed and wounded is greater than our force can afford to lose. The officers who were obliged to exert themselves have suffered very much; and we have lost some extremely good officers. The trials we have had show the rebels are not the despicable rabble too many have supposed

them to be; and I find it owing to a military spirit encouraged among them for a few years past, joined with an uncommon degree of zeal and enthusiasm, that they are otherwise."

Map Work. — Locate Boston, Lexington, Concord, Charlestown.

Collateral Reading

History. — Brooks, "Stories of the Old Bay State," pp. 118, 135; Dawes, "Colonial Massachusetts," pp. 42-72; Brooks, "Century Book of the American Revolution," pp. 1-68.

Poetry. — Longfellow, "Paul Revere's Ride"; Emerson, "Concord Hymn"; Pierpont, "Warren's Address"; Stevenson, "Poems of American History."

Fiction. — Cooper, "Lionel Lincoln"; Butterworth, "The Patriot Schoolmaster"; Adams, "Watchfires of '76."



**Drum used at Bunker
Hill**

GEORGE WASHINGTON, THE YOUNG VIRGINIAN

As we have read about the beginnings of the Revolution, we have met the name of a man who was to play the most important part in our struggle for independence. It is now necessary to turn back in our story in order to see how this young Virginia planter, George Washington, was fitted for the great work he had to do.

About the middle of the sixteenth century, two brothers emigrated from England to America. They were of the sturdy middle class of Old England, good stock for colonizing a new world. These brothers purchased land in Virginia between the Potomac and Rappahannock Rivers, and one of them, Colonel John Washington, as he was known in his new home, became a man of influence in the community. His grandson, Augustine, was born in 1694 and grew to be a man of unusual physical power and of strong character. Like his father and grandfather, Augustine Washington was a planter, one of the large landowners of Virginia, and was considered wealthy for those times. He was twice married, and his second wife, Mary Ball, was a woman of beauty and of sound common sense.

To them, at the old homestead in Westmoreland County, was born on February 22, 1732, a son whom they named George. While he was a little boy, the family moved to a plantation near Fredericksburg, and there most of his boyhood days were spent. This boy had back of him good blood and good breeding, and he proved worthy of them. His father,

although rich in land, had little ready money, and so was unable to give all of his large family the advantages of a thorough education. There were few good schools in the colonies at that time, so Lawrence, the eldest son, was sent to England to finish his training, while George was learning the simple rudiments of a common school education at home. This school was taught by the sexton of the parish, and it was not long before the active boy had learned all the village schoolmaster could teach him.

George was at this time a sturdy, well-built little fellow, with a strongly knit frame, giving promise of the muscular man to come. When he was about eight years old his brother Lawrence returned from England, and a strong affection sprang up between the young man just out of college and the little boy.

Lawrence served for a time in the West Indies in the war between England and Spain, and probably was regarded by his small brother as a great military hero. So George, at home, organized among the schoolboys companies of soldiers and played at war. Without doubt, he formed something of a taste for adventure at this early age. He even at one time wished to become a sailor and had obtained a midshipman's berth through his brother Lawrence's influence, but gave it up to please his mother.

In 1743, Augustine Washington died, and his large landed property was divided among his children. To Lawrence was given the estate on the Potomac, which he afterward named Mount Vernon in honor of the Admiral Vernon, under whom he had served in the Spanish wars. The old homestead in Westmoreland County was given to Augustine, another brother, while George, when he became of age, was to have the lands on the Rappahannock.

In order that George might have better school advantages he was now sent to live with his brother Augustine. Here he attended an academy kept by the Rev. James Mayre, a French emigrant, who gave him a practical business education. He was good in mathematics, especially in geometry and in surveying. His fondness for these studies, together with his love of an outdoor life, had much to do with his choice of a profession; for he soon began to fit himself to become a surveyor.

George was a serious-minded boy, somewhat shy and diffident, and large for his age. His schoolmates looked upon him with affection and with so much respect that their boyish disputes were usually referred to him for settlement. Many of his schoolbooks and exercises have been preserved, and they show that he was already forming those careful and methodical habits that were so marked in his later life. A copy book which he made about 1745 is most interesting. In it were copied, in a neat and painstaking hand, bonds, receipts, and other business forms. When he was tired, he would stop, like most boys, and draw in the margin pictures of birds or of his schoolmates.

But the best parts of this copy book are the "Rules of Civility." The master thought that his boys should be taught good manners and good conduct as well as arithmetic, so George copied and studied these rules faithfully. Without doubt, they had a great influence in forming his habits and character.

It would be well if the boys and girls of to-day could study these quaint rules of conduct as faithfully as did Washington. Here are some of them:

"Let your countenance be pleasant, but in serious matters somewhat grave.

"Show not yourself glad at the misfortune of another, though he were your enemy.

"Talk not with meat in your mouth.

"Speak not evil of the absent, for it is unjust.

"Labour to keep alive in your breast that little Spark of Celestial fire called Conscience."

But we must not think that the thoughtful, studious boy was wholly devoted to his books. He was also unusually fond of the free out-of-door life so commonly followed in colonial Virginia. In the fields and in the forests he learned much that is not taught in books, and his courage, his self-reliance, and his rugged strength came largely from contact with nature. He learned to shoot straight, to ride well, and to hold his own in swimming, in wrestling, in pitching quoits, and in other boyish sports.

A story is told of him that shows his skill as a rider and his strong sense of honor.

Sorrel, the finest colt on his mother's farm, was high-spirited and difficult to manage.

One morning when the boys were in the pasture, George tried to ride this colt. He had nearly succeeded in mastering the animal, when Sorrel, leaping and plunging



Washington tries to ride the Colt

around the lot in an effort to unseat the boy, burst a blood vessel and soon died. The boys were of course afraid to tell Mrs. Washington what had happened. When they came in

to breakfast, she asked how they found the horses, and George honestly told the story of the accident. For a moment she was angry, for she was fond of the splendid animal, but she soon said that she was proud of her boy for telling the truth at once and not trying to shield himself.

In 1747, George's school days ended and he went to live with his brother Lawrence at Mount Vernon. Here he soon put to practical use his knowledge of surveying, and busied himself in running lines and in measuring his brother's estate. Here, too, he had an opportunity to test those rules of conduct by which he was shaping his character.

On an estate adjoining Mount Vernon, lived Lord Fairfax, a courtly, white-haired English gentleman who owned immense tracts of land in Virginia. This nobleman soon noticed the modest, well-bred boy, and a strong friendship sprang up between them. Washington was a welcome visitor at Belvoir, Lord Fairfax's home. They rode together, they went fox hunting together, and the boy must have absorbed from the man of the world something of the culture and of the sound, mellow civilization of which the fine old English gentleman was so good a type.

It was Lord Fairfax who gave Washington his first employment as a surveyor. He saw that the boy who showed such energy and accuracy in surveying his brother's lands, was worthy of a larger trial. Fairfax had a great tract of land in the Shenandoah valley extending over the Blue Ridge into what is now West Virginia. This property, in 1748, he sent Washington to survey. It was a task which would test the mettle of most men, but the sixteen-year-old boy proved equal to the trust. In company with George Fairfax and a few assistants, he started for the Shenandoah. Their life in the wilderness for the next few weeks was crowded with hard

work and with adventure. They usually slept in the open air or in tents, and for food they depended largely on hunting.

At one time, they fell in with a party of Indians, and at night, around the camp fire, they watched the weird dances of the red men. For food, they had the trout which they caught in the mountain brooks and the game with which the forest abounded. What a charm this woods life had for them, only boys who have tasted the joys of camping out can fully realize. Washington, in after years, referred to these experiences as the happiest moments in his life. When the little expedition returned to civilization, Lord Fairfax was so well pleased with the skillful manner in which Washington had done his work that he obtained for him an appointment as public surveyor of Culpeper County.

The next three years were passed in the practice of his profession. His home was now at Mount Vernon, but much



Greenway Court

of his time was spent with his friend Lord Fairfax at Greenway Court. This was a wilderness home which the nobleman, charmed with the beauty of the country which Washington surveyed, had built in the Shenandoah valley, near where Winchester now stands.

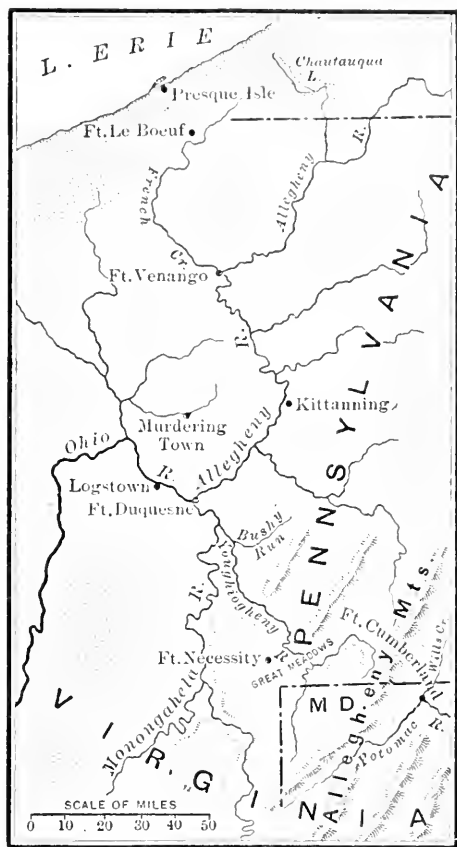
During this time, Lawrence Washington's health failed, and with the hope that a sea voyage would prove beneficial, he took George, his favorite brother, on a trip to the West Indies. The voyage, however, proved of no avail, and in 1752 Lawrence died, leaving his daughter in charge of George as her guardian. She lived only a short time after, and George, by a provision of his brother's will, became the owner of the great plantation at Mount Vernon.

He might now have settled down to a life of ease, but the country was on the verge of a great war in which he was destined to be a conspicuous figure.

For over a century the settlements of the English in America had been confined to a narrow strip along the Atlantic seaboard, extending back less than two hundred miles. The French in Canada had occupied the St. Lawrence valley, and their priests and traders had boldly explored the western country. There they had established forts and trading posts along the Great Lakes and down the Mississippi River.

Both peoples were attracted by the reports of the fertility and beauty of the Ohio valley. Virginia laid claim to this country under the provisions of its royal charter, and a company of Virginia gentlemen, under the name of the Ohio Company, was formed to make settlements in this valley. But the French, also realizing its value, were preparing to take and hold possession by the establishment of a chain of forts extending from Lake Erie to the Mississippi

River. Three of these forts were already built: one at Presque Isle, now Erie, Pennsylvania, another called Fort Le Bœuf, where Waterford, Pennsylvania, is now situated; and an outpost at Venango, now the site of Franklin, Pennsylvania. It was seen at once by the Virginians that decisive steps must be taken to enforce their claim to the Ohio valley. Some one must be sent there to find out what the plans of the French were, and to win the friendship of the Indians. The man chosen must be fearless, tactful, and an expert woodsman. So it is not strange that Washington, then only twenty-one years of age, was chosen for this difficult and dangerous undertaking.



Early Forts in the Ohio Valley

In October of 1753, armed with a letter from Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia to the French commander at Fort Le Bœuf, he started on his mission. With him were his old fencing master, Jacob Van Braam, and Christopher Gist, a famous frontier guide. They had also four Indian traders and servants. The journey of 500 miles over the mountains and through the trackless forests was attended with many dangers, but at last the little company reached the French

fort. The officers received them cordially, but frankly said to Washington that they could not abandon the country which the Virginians claimed.

After a few days' rest, Washington and his companions started on their return journey. Winter had already set in, and the rivers were swollen with ice. In his eagerness to



Washington thrown from the Raft

reach home, Washington left the others to follow more slowly, and, with Gist, pushed on ahead. In the diary which he kept, he tells of the difficulties they met. One day an Indian, who seemed to be friendly, suddenly shot at the two men, but fortunately missed, so they disarmed him and let him go. Coming to one river which they could not ford, Washington says, "There

was no way of getting over but on a Raft which we set about with but one poor hatchet and finished just after Sunsetting. Before we were half way over we were jammed in the Ice. The Rapidity of the Stream jerked me out into ten feet of Water but I saved myself by catching hold of one of the logs." The current was so strong that they could not bring the raft to shore but were obliged to abandon it and swim to an island.

Here they stayed all night, suffering greatly from the intense cold. The next morning the river had frozen over so that they walked to the other shore. After many days of hardship and danger and treachery, they came safely home to Virginia, and on the 16th of January, 1754, Washington reported the result of his mission to Governor Dinwiddie.

Immediately Virginia prepared for war. Troops were mustered, and a company of men was sent forward to build a fort at the point where the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers meet and form the Ohio. Washington followed soon after with two companies, and in a skirmish near a place known as Great Meadows, surprised and defeated a small force of French.



Washington as a Young Man

Leaving a few men at Great Meadows, he then pushed forward to a settlement which had been made by his old guide Christopher Gist, cutting a wagon road through the woods as he went. But the French, in the meantime, had driven off the English at the headwaters of the Ohio and had built there a fort which they named Fort Duquesne. Washington, hearing that the

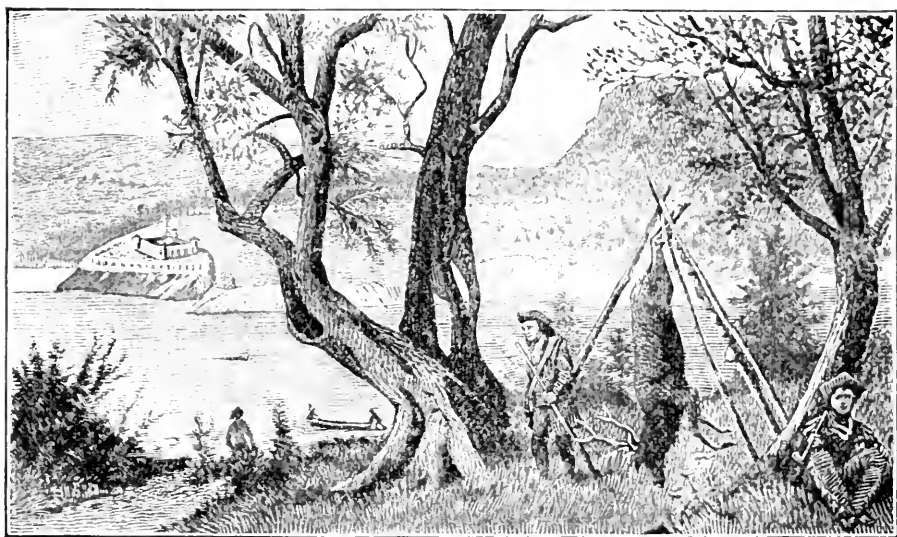
French were advancing from this fort, fell back to Great Meadows, and hastily threw up a rough stockade which he called Fort Necessity. Here he was attacked by a force greatly outnumbering his own, and, after a brave fight lasting nine hours, was forced to surrender. With all the honors of war, the Virginia troops were allowed to march out of the fort and to return to their homes. Washington, in writing to his brother about one of these skirmishes, said, "I heard the bullets whistle, and believe me, there is something charming in the sound." The English king, George II, upon hearing this remark, laughed and said that Washington would not have said so if he had been used to hearing many.

The war, known in history as the French and Indian War, which was to decide whether the French or the English were to have America, now began in bitter earnest. The English government was roused to action and sent over regiments of regular troops to assist the colonies. There were five strongholds of the French in America which the English wished to take. One of these was Fort Duquesne, and against it, in the early summer of 1755, marched General Braddock in command of 2000 colonial troops and regulars.

Braddock was a gallant soldier, but his training had been on European battlefields, and he had contempt for the colonial militia. Colonel Washington, who was a member of his staff of officers, warned him that warfare in the forests and against the French and their Indian allies was very different from what he had experienced, but he stubbornly refused to listen to the young man. The little army had nearly reached Fort Duquesne and was marching with banners gayly flying and with fife and drum playing, when the French and Indians suddenly fell upon them. The colonial troops, used to this kind of warfare, immediately sprang behind trees, but the

regulars, drawn up in battle line, fired helplessly at an unseen foe. Braddock, storming up and down the line, tried to rally his disordered troops, but failed and was mortally wounded. Washington seemed to bear a charmed life; two horses were shot under him and four bullets tore through his coat, but he escaped unharmed and, with his militia, covered the retreat of the army.

After this disastrous defeat, Washington was placed in



Fort Duquesne

command of the Virginia troops, and in 1758 took part in another expedition against Fort Duquesne. This time the fortunes of war were with the English, for the tide had turned against the French in all parts of the country. Before the English reached Duquesne, the French abandoned and burned the defenses. On its ruins the English rebuilt the fort and named it Pitt in honor of the great Prime Minister of England. At that place is now the great manufacturing and commercial city of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

As the war was now practically over, Washington returned

to Mount Vernon and resumed the life of a Virginia planter and gentleman. In the summer of 1758 he had met and won Martha Custis, a beautiful and wealthy young widow, and on January 6, 1759, they were married. Their spacious home on the Potomac, under the direction of its charming mistress, soon became a center in the social life of the neighborhood. For the next few years its generous hospitality and its quiet comfort made it famous. Here Washington lived until his country's need called him again into public service.

Topical Outline. — George Washington: boyhood and youth. Life at Mount Vernon; friends and occupations. The French in the Ohio valley. Washington's journey to the French forts. His share in the French and Indian War. His marriage.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph on each of the following topics: George Washington's school days, his friendship with Lord Fairfax, his games and sports. II. Imagine yourself a companion of Washington on the trip to the French forts. Tell the story of your adventures on the journey. III. Write from memory some of Washington's rules of conduct. IV. What were the causes of the French and Indian War. Tell why the possession of Fort Duquesne was important.

Map Work. — Locate Fredericksburg, Mount Vernon (p. 60), Allegheny and Monongahela Rivers, Presque Isle, Fort Le Bœuf, Venango, Fort Duquesne, Fort Necessity.

GEORGE WASHINGTON — SOLDIER AND STATESMAN



Mount Vernon

IN colonial Virginia there were no large cities. Its great rivers had no falls to develop water power for the mills around which villages might cluster. Its lands were fertile, and the colonists were, for the most part, busied with the raising of grain and tobacco. So great estates grew up along the shores of broad tidal rivers like the James, the York, and the Potomac. Each of these estates had its owner's mansion, built of wood or brick, with broad halls and wide verandas, its quarters for the servants and slaves, its workshops and its barns, so that each plantation was a little village in itself.

To one of these fine old Virginia homes, in 1759, Washington brought his young bride. Most of us have seen pictures of Mount Vernon, but they cannot do justice to the beauty of its location. Situated on the summit of a small hill, with its green lawns gently sloping to the river, it commanded a fine view of the Potomac. Stretching away on either side were the broad acres and the forests of the estate, a scene of contentment and of comfort to gladden the heart of the young man fresh from the hardships of Indian wars.



Martha Washington

Washington loved his home and its quiet country life, and here he now had his first chance for rest and retirement since his early boyhood days. The estate and the considerable property which his wife had brought him, required careful supervision. Rising early, he would visit his farms on horseback, directing his overseers where fields were to be plowed or cultivated, and where forests were to be cleared. Often, in

the afternoon, he would join his neighbors in fox hunting or in shooting canvasback ducks on the Potomac, and the

sport would frequently end with a hunt supper at one of the homes.

He was one of the wealthy men of the colony, and his intimate friends were among its leaders. These he would entertain with gracious hospitality at Mount Vernon, and he would return their visits by trips to their estates. We can see him now as he starts out with his wife for these visits of state — Mrs. Washington in her coach and four, with the driver and servants in livery, while her husband rode on horseback at the side of the coach.

So the quiet years passed, broken only by an occasional visit to the colonial capital, to perform his duties as a member of the House of Burgesses. These years were years of growth of character and of strict attention to his business. He became the most successful planter in the colony. He kept his own account books and personally directed the planting and the harvesting of his crops. It is said that the quality of the tobacco and flour which was shipped abroad bearing the brand "George Washington, Mount Vernon" was so well known that the customs inspectors passed it without examination. Although he held slaves, he treated them kindly and never sold them.

During the years when Washington was quietly living at Mount Vernon, the troubles between England and her American colonies were rapidly reaching a crisis. What these unjust demands and exactions of the mother country were, you have already learned in your study of the lives of Samuel Adams and of Patrick Henry. A congress of the colonies was held in Philadelphia in 1774, and Washington was sent to it as a delegate from Virginia. Patrick Henry, who was also a member of the congress, when asked who was the greatest man there, said: "If you speak of eloquence, Mr.

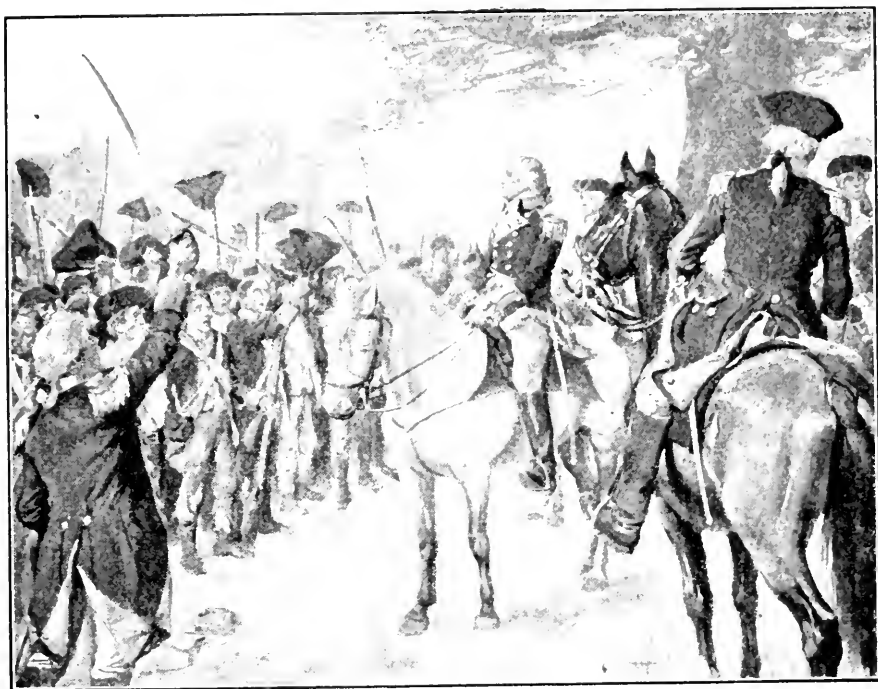
Rutledge is by far the greatest orator; but if you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Colonel Washington is undoubtedly the greatest man on that floor."

When the Second Continental Congress met, May 10, 1775, also in Philadelphia, the time for a peaceful settlement of the issues between England and the colonies had passed. The battle of Lexington had been fought and American blood shed. Washington was again a delegate from Virginia to this Congress, and was at once chosen commander in chief of all the Continental forces. Perhaps he was the only man on whom Congress could unanimously agree, for, since the French and Indian War, he was undoubtedly the greatest military leader in America. Notwithstanding his fitness for the place, he modestly questioned his own worth. In his reply to the appointment, Washington said: "Though I am truly sensitive of the high honor done me in this appointment, yet I feel great distress from a consciousness that my abilities may not be equal to the trust." As a condition of acceptance, he refused to receive any pay for his services except for his personal expenses, of which he kept an exact account and for which he was afterwards repaid. This, it may be noted, was all he asked in after years when he became President.

The little army which General Washington was to command was stationed around Boston, so he at once set out from Philadelphia for that city. While he was on the journey, news was brought of the battle of Bunker Hill. Washington, upon hearing the story of that gallant fight, and learning that the militia had repulsed the attacks of the British regulars, until their powder and shot were gone, exclaimed: "Thank God, the liberties of the country are safe." On July 2, 1775, he reached Cambridge, just outside of Boston, and took com-

mand of the colonial troops. The elm tree under which he reviewed the army on the next day is still standing, and is called the Washington Elm. He established his headquarters in the Craigie homestead, a fine old colonial mansion afterwards occupied by the poet Longfellow.

It was a poorly equipped body of men that Washington



Washington takes Command of the Continental Army

had to command. Most of them were without uniforms, and many had no guns. They were unused to discipline, and were enlisted for short terms. Supplies were low, and there was constant danger of attack from the British, who were encamped across the river in the city of Boston. His first task was to make a disciplined army out of these raw recruits. So the summer and fall were spent in drilling the men and in gathering supplies.

The material most needed was powder and cannon. Fortunately Ethan Allen and his band of "Green Mountain boys," had, in the early summer, by a bold stroke, captured the English forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga. These forts were well stored with arms and ammunition, and at the beginning of winter their cannon and other needed supplies were drawn on ox sleds to Washington's camp.

With his men armed, equipped, and trained, Washington was now ready to begin active warfare. Planting his cannon behind breastworks on the heights about Boston, he soon made the British position in that city difficult to hold, and on March 17, 1776, the enemy were forced to abandon the city. In their haste, the English left behind much valuable material of war with which Washington was better able to equip his army. The British troops sailed away to Halifax, but King George III and his advisers were already planning to attack New York. Suspecting this, Washington withdrew his troops to that city to prepare for its defense.

Meanwhile the breach between England and America rapidly widened. Petitions to the king and protests to Parliament having failed, all hope of reconciliation seemed to vanish. So the Continental Congress took a decisive step, and in June, 1776, appointed a committee to draft a statement of the colonists' wrongs and a declaration of their liberties. This committee, of which Thomas Jefferson was chairman, reported to Congress, and on July 4, 1776, the delegates adopted the Declaration of Independence.

THE CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

At the very time when the Congress was proclaiming the colonies to be a free and independent nation, the English

Washington had less than 18,000 men with which to protect the city. If you will look at a map of the city and the country surrounding it, you will see that the English from their location on Staten Island could strike a decisive blow at any one spot of the American line of defenses before Washington could mass enough troops to strengthen it.

[illegible]

Vicinity of New York

cans to this effect, reënforcements were brought over from Manhattan, and men were sent out beyond the defenses to guard the three great highways crossing the ridge. The Flatbush Pass was the only one defended by fieldworks; at East New York, about where Jamaica Avenue now passes the entrance to Evergreen Cemetery, only five young men were stationed.

As the British landed, they spread rapidly over the plains from New Utrecht and Gravesend to Flatbush. On August 27 simultaneous attacks were ordered by the British on the Americans at Flatbush Pass and on the Coast Road to the west, while other troops were sent around to East New York, and after capturing the outpost stationed on the Jamaica Road, came around on the American rear. There is a bit of humor in the fact that Cornwallis, Clinton, Percy, and several other less famous officers with at least eight hundred men, captured those five boys stationed at the Jamaica Pass.

Some of the most terrible fighting of the war was on the field stretching from Battle Pass, now in Greenwood Cemetery, to Battle Hill, now in Prospect Park. Both places are appropriately marked, but at Battle Hill is a fine monument to the memory of the Maryland troops that fell there on August 28. The next day was hot and rainy, and neither side attempted to renew the battle. The capture of the entire Long Island division of the American army now seemed certain, but General Howe had a habit of putting off things, and failed to follow up the victory he had won. While he waited, Washington seized all the boats on the Brooklyn side of the East River, and on the night of the 29th, aided by a dense fog which concealed the movements of the army, he safely carried across to Manhattan nearly 10,000 men. By

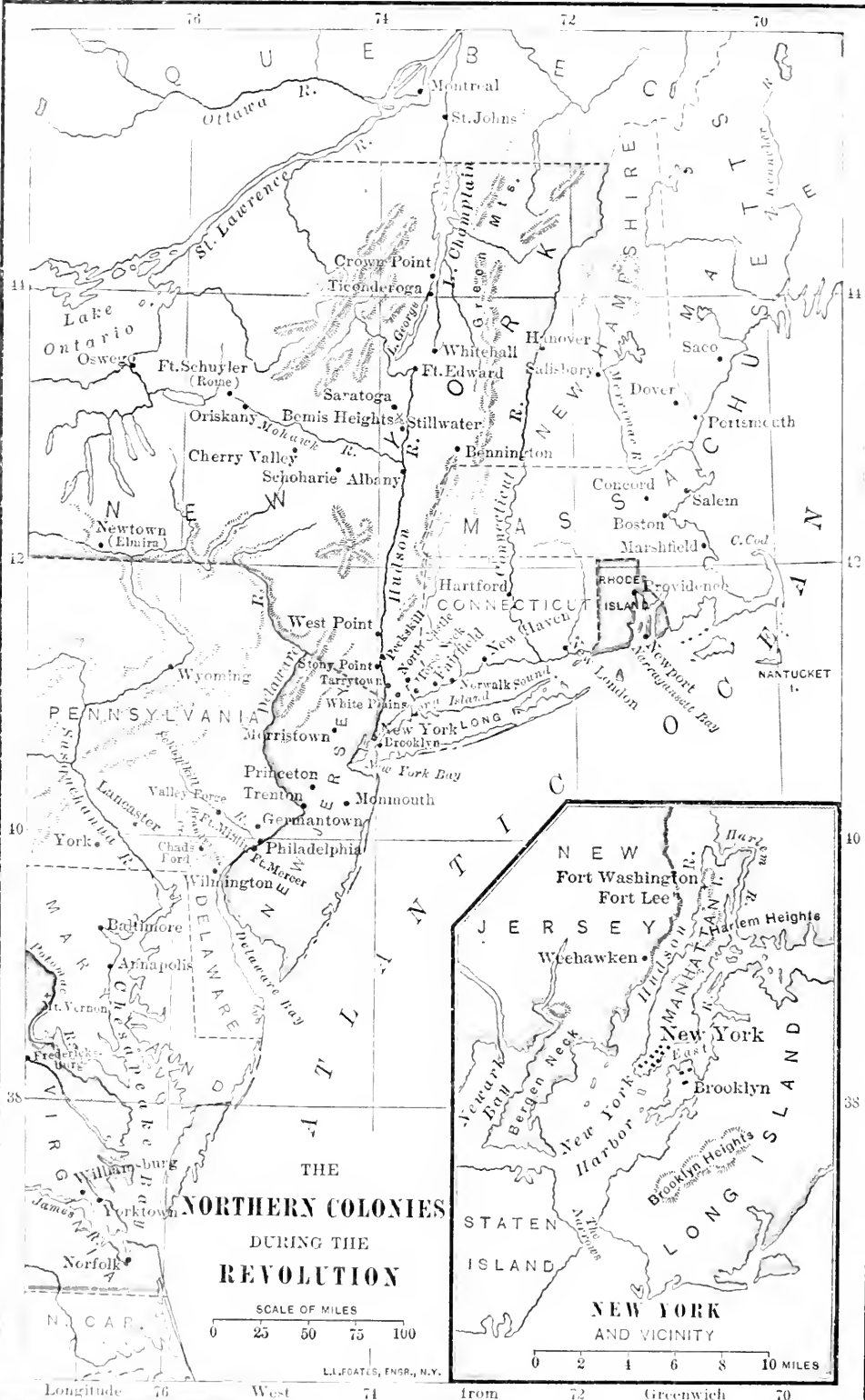
this masterly retreat, Washington saved his army. Although he had been forty-eight hours with scarcely time for food or for rest, he directed that retreat in person, and when in the gray



Retreating from Brooklyn

dawn he embarked with the last boat load of soldiers, he must have breathed a sigh of relief at so shrewdly outwitting the British.

Two weeks later, on September 15, the British crossed the East River and landed at Kip's Bay, at what is now the foot of East Thirty-sixth Street, with little opposition. They moved north and attacked Washington's position at Harlem Heights. Although the Patriots pushed the British line back, they knew that they could not long hold their position, for the British boats could enter the Harlem River and land troops in their rear. So it was decided to cross over into Westchester County. For the next two months Washington slowly retreated north-



THE
NORTHERN COLONIES
DURING THE
REVOLUTION

SCALE OF MILES
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L.L. FOOTE, ENGR., N.Y.

ward, never risking a general engagement because of the superior strength of the enemy, but forcing them to fight for every foot of ground they took. At White Plains, the two armies again met. Soon after, with part of his army, Washington crossed the Hudson River and retired into New Jersey.

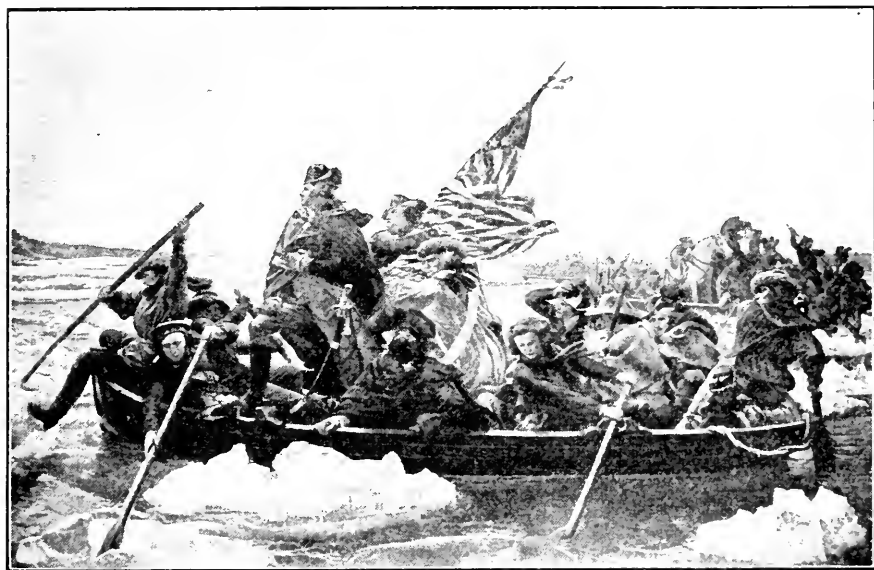
The Patriots had fortified two positions on either side of the Hudson above the city of New York, in order to prevent the English fleet from passing up the river. Fort Washington on the eastern bank was captured by General Howe, and the Patriots were forced soon after to abandon Fort Lee on the western shore. Then followed Washington's memorable retreat across New Jersey.

The English, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, pressed so closely upon the Americans that at times the armies were in sight of each other. Washington, however, by burning bridges and by blocking the roads, managed to keep out of reach of the pursuing enemy. At last, reaching the Delaware River and collecting all the boats in the vicinity, he crossed over into Pennsylvania. A few hours later, the British came marching down to the river, but, having no boats, were forced to encamp and wait until the river had frozen. Cornwallis was so certain that he now had Washington at his mercy that, leaving his army in camp, he returned to New York for the Christmas holidays.

The affairs of the Americans were at a low ebb. During the retreat across New Jersey, Washington had lost thousands of men by desertion and by the ending of their terms of enlistment. Seemingly, the whole country was discouraged, but its great-hearted leader never gave up hope. He knew that if he could strike a successful blow at the British, faith in him and in his army would be restored. The opportunity soon

came, for the English, careless and confident of victory, were loosely guarding their lines.

At Trenton a detachment of Hessians were stationed. These Hessians were German soldiers whom King George had hired to fight for him, and they were especially hated by the Americans. So Washington determined if possible to capture them. Plans for the attack were carefully made, and



Washington crossing the Delaware

on Christmas night, with a body of picked men, he crossed the Delaware.

The river was full of floating ice, the current was strong, and the weather was bitterly cold, but the brave general was fortunate in having, in the force he had selected, a regiment of New England fishermen used to handling boats, so the crossing was safely made. As the men started on their march toward Trenton, nine miles away, the storm increased in fury. Sleet and snow were driven in the faces of the weary

soldiers as they advanced, and two men were frozen to death by the bitter cold. It was after daybreak when they reached the enemy's camp, but the surprise was complete, and Washington captured a thousand Hessians.

This victory, and Washington's further operations in New Jersey, aroused Cornwallis to action. He again took the field, determined, as he said, "to finish the business up." Leaving three regiments at Princeton, with the rest of his army he drove Washington back to the Delaware. "At last we have the old Fox bagged," said the British general, but Washington was not to be so easily caught. During the night, leaving his camp fires brightly burning and sentinels on guard to deceive the enemy, Washington slipped around the British lines, and by sunrise fell upon and defeated the troops stationed at Princeton. This second victory, following so closely upon the one at Trenton, greatly encouraged the Americans. Active campaigning now ceased, and Washington went into winter quarters on the heights above Morristown, where his position was so strongly fortified as to be secure from attack.

Of this campaign, a great German general has said that no finer military movement was ever executed than the retreat through New Jersey and the return across the Delaware with its victories at Trenton and at Princeton.

We must not close our story of this part of the war, however, without mentioning the name of Robert Morris, a patriot banker of Philadelphia. He pledged his own fortune and induced his Quaker friends to give money for the support of the army. The timely receipt of these funds made it possible for Washington to reënlist the soldiers whose terms of service were about to expire. Without these soldiers victory would have been impossible.

THE CAMPAIGN IN PENNSYLVANIA

The English king and his advisers now saw that their war with the despised colonists was more serious than they had at first expected. Plans were made in London early in 1777 for a threefold movement of the British troops. The colony of New York was to be the center of attack. The king thought that by getting possession of the Hudson valley he could separate the rebellious New Englanders from the rest of the colonies. In this way, by dividing the American strength, he could more readily crush the rebellion. Accordingly General Burgoyne was to come south along the Champlain route from Canada; St. Leger, from Oswego, was to advance eastward through the Mohawk valley, and join Burgoyne at Albany; while Howe was to send reënforcements up the Hudson to meet the united armies. It was a beautiful scheme on paper; how poorly Burgoyne's and St. Leger's parts in it worked out, we shall read in another chapter. Here we are interested in knowing about Washington's share in checkmating the British game.

Washington saw that it was absolutely necessary to keep Howe so busy that no troops could be sent north. In order to do this, he pretended to strike at New York, then in the hands of the English. Howe retaliated by beginning operations against Philadelphia. He at first tried to march his army across New Jersey, but Washington blocked the way so effectually that he returned to New York. Leaving a garrison to guard that city, Howe with his fleet and 18,000 men then set sail for Chesapeake Bay. The Continental army at once marched southward to check the British advance.

It was while they were passing through Philadelphia, that Washington first met the Marquis de Lafayette. This

young French nobleman was an ardent lover of liberty, who had fitted out a vessel at his own expense and had sailed to America to offer his services. His life and his fortune he freely risked to aid the colonists. Congress made him a major general, and Washington, when he came to know Lafayette's fine nature, loved and trusted him as a son.

It was late in August when Howe landed his troops at the head of Chesapeake Bay. Between him and Philadelphia lay Washington with 11,000 men ready to contest every foot of the way. On the 11th of September, the two armies met at Chads Ford on Brandywine Creek, and Washington was driven back. He fought and marched so skillfully, however, that it took Howe two weeks to advance the remaining twenty-six miles and capture Philadelphia. Another battle in October, at Germantown, a suburb of the city, nearly resulted in a victory for the Americans. But a dense fog concealed the movements of the troops, and in the confusion the Americans fired on one another and the day was lost.

It was now too late for Howe to send aid to Burgoyne, so he established his army in Philadelphia, while Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, heavy wooded heights on the Schuylkill River twenty miles away. Meanwhile, in the north, St. Leger had been driven back at Oriskany, and Burgoyne had surrendered at Saratoga. These American victories more than compensated for the loss of Philadelphia, for they won for the colonies the friendship and support of France. Washington's campaigns during the summer and fall of 1777 had, in a great measure, made the victory at Saratoga possible, for by keeping Howe busy he had prevented the union of the British armies. If Howe had sent strong reënforcements up the Hudson, it is hardly probable that the British campaign in the north would have failed.

While the British were comfortably occupying Philadelphia during the winter of 1777-1778, Washington's ragged troops were bravely enduring fearful hardships in their winter camp at Valley Forge. They lived in log huts which were fairly warm, but they were ill-clothed and poorly fed. Thousands of them were without shoes, and when they gathered firewood or served on sentry duty, the soldiers' tracks in the snow



A Scene in Camp at Valley Forge

were sometimes covered with blood. Although Washington's great heart ached for the sufferings of his men in this dreadful winter, he never lost faith. A Prussian officer, Baron Steuben,¹ who had learned the art of war from Frederick the

¹ After the Revolutionary War was over, Baron Steuben was given, as a reward for his services, a large tract of land in central New York, north of the Mohawk River at Utica. He is buried near the village of Remsen in Oneida County.

Great, now joined the Americans. His services to the army were great, for he was a master of military tactics. He taught the soldiers that their bayonets were good for something more than to toast meat over the fires, and he thoroughly drilled and disciplined the men.

LATER CAMPAIGNS

At last the long winter came to an end and Washington was again ready to take the field. General Howe had been recalled to England, and General Henry Clinton sent over to take command of the British forces. He withdrew his troops from Philadelphia and started for New York. Washington followed, and a battle was fought on the 28th of June at Monmouth, New Jersey. The Americans might have won a victory here if it had not been for the treachery of General Charles Lee.

Lee was an English soldier of fortune who had joined the Continental army at the beginning of the war. He had been rapidly advanced until he was second in command in the patriot army. He thought he ought to be first, and he had more than once disregarded or disobeyed Washington's orders. Finally he began to treat secretly with the enemy. At Monmouth he was in command of the leading division of the American army, and ordered a retreat before the battle had fairly commenced. Washington, riding up in a white-hot temper, dismissed Lee from the command and rallied his disordered troops. But the harm had already been done, and the British safely escaped to New York.

There was among the Americans another traitor whose black deed of dishonor is the darkest spot in the history of the Revolution. His name was Benedict Arnold, and he had a record of honorable service in the earlier part of the war.

Having been wounded in battle, he was given command of Philadelphia after Clinton left that city. Here he incurred heavy debts, and was by order of Congress publicly rebuked. But Washington still trusted him implicitly and



Arnold and André

placed him in command of West Point, a strongly fortified position on the Hudson. This fortress he secretly planned to surrender to the British, but the plot was discovered through the capture of André, a British officer who came within the American lines to arrange the plan for carrying out the surrender of the fort. Arnold escaped and joined the enemy. Washington was deeply hurt at Arnold's treason. He

hardly knew whom to trust, when the man he loved had failed him so utterly.

There were no more great campaigns in the North, for the British now made their chief attacks on the Southern colonies. In the Carolinas, a few scattered patriot bands under the able leadership of Morgan and Marion, "the Swamp Fox," had carried on a kind of border warfare. Gates was sent there to

lead the American forces, but he failed to accomplish anything. So Nathanael Greene, next to Washington the greatest general in the Continental army, was placed in command. He succeeded in inflicting great losses on Cornwallis's army, so that Cornwallis decided to abandon the Carolinas and to march northward into Virginia. There, after failing to bring on a battle with Lafayette, he fortified himself at Yorktown, in August, 1781.

Washington saw that the time had come to make a supreme effort to end the war. A powerful fleet under the command of Count de Grasse, sent from France to aid us, was on its way to the Chesapeake. Lafayette with a small army of Americans was facing Cornwallis in Virginia. Washington with his main force was encamped on the Hudson. He determined to move his army secretly and rapidly from New York to Virginia, a distance of 400 miles, and crush the British at Yorktown.

In anticipation of such a campaign, a French army stationed in Rhode Island joined Washington's forces on the Hudson, in July, 1781. The British general in New York supposed these troops were being gathered to attack his position in that city. In order to strengthen this impression, Washington left West Point well garrisoned, while he moved his main army into New Jersey as if intending to attack Staten Island as the first step in a campaign directed against New York. Only the French general knew the real purpose in Washington's mind. So secretly and so rapidly did the army move that its French and American soldiers did not realize until they had actually reached Philadelphia that the object of this general movement of troops was to unite with the land forces under Lafayette and the naval forces under De Grasse in an effort to crush Cornwallis. This brilliant scheme

worked famously. The troops had marched halfway across New Jersey before the British in New York realized they had gone. By this skillful union of his forces, Washington securely hemmed in Cornwallis both by sea and by land. The British general made several gallant efforts to break through the surrounding lines, but soon found that he must surrender to superior forces. So on the 19th of October, 1781, the British army marched out of its fortifications to the humiliating notes of a quaint old English tune, "The World Turned Upside Down," and laid down its arms. This was the crowning event in the career of Washington as a great military leader.

This victory practically ended the war, although peace was not declared until 1783. No one rejoiced more at its close than did Washington. He had grown gray in his country's service. He had become the first soldier of his



Washington taking Leave of his Officers and Friends

time, and now he longed for the peace and comfort of Mount Vernon. On the 4th of December, 1783, at Fraunce's tavern in New York city, he met his generals and dearest friends to bid them farewell. After taking an affectionate leave of his comrades he returned to the home from which he had been separated for so many years. Here with his flocks and herds, among the familiar scenes he loved so well, he hoped to pass the rest of his days.

PRESIDENT WASHINGTON

Washington was not permitted to live in retirement for many years on his Virginia estate. The times that tried men's souls were not yet passed. The wisest statesmen in the country saw that if the liberty that had been won at such a cost was to be kept, a stronger form of government must be made. So a convention in Philadelphia in 1787 drafted the Constitution under which we are now a united nation. As a result of the new form of government, Washington was elected the first President of the United States. He brought to the duties of this high office the same sound judgment, the same grasp of detail, and the same huge energy that had marked his career as a general in the war of the Revolution.

For eight years he served his country faithfully and without pay. Declining election for a third term, he again sought retirement at Mount Vernon. Here he occupied himself with the cares of his estate; with the planting, the harvesting, and the other duties of a prosperous farmer.

Occasionally his friends would visit him, and public men would come from all parts of the country to pay their respects to the great soldier and statesman. His strict attention to business and the importance he attached to small things are shown by the fact that after his death there were found in his

diary complete plans for a succession of crops on his farms for the next four years. But Washington was not long spared as an example of industry and of dignity in private as well as in public life. On December 12, 1799, after a hard day in the saddle riding about his farms in a rain storm, he returned home. That night he was taken with a severe chill, and two days later died.

The news of his death was received with the deepest sorrow by the whole world, for he was everywhere recognized as one of the greatest figures of history.

Many years after, the English novelist Thackeray drew a fine picture of him in the novel, "The Virginians." With Thackeray's words about Washington we must close this sketch: "To endure is greater than to dare; to tire out hostile fortune; to be daunted by no difficulties; to keep heart when all have lost it; to go through intrigue spotless; and to forego even ambition when the end is gained — who can say this is not greatness, or show the other Englishman who has achieved so much?"

Topical Outline. — Life in colonial Virginia; Mount Vernon and its master. The colonial Congresses and Washington's influence in them. The Patriot army about Boston. Preparations for active warfare. Congress takes the final step of separation. The campaigns in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Washington's share in the victory at Saratoga. Hardships of the winter camp at Valley Forge. Military movements leading to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. End of the war. Washington as President and in private life. The death of Washington. Thackeray's opinion of the great Virginian.

For Written Work. — I. Write a story of not less than 100 words on the topic, "Life in Virginia in Olden Times." II. Tell why you think Washington was chosen to command the Continental Army. What training and experience and what qualities of mind and body had he which fitted him for this position? III. Why was the possession of

the Hudson River deemed important by both sides? IV. Trace on your map the movements of Washington's army in the latter part of the year 1776. V. Show how Washington's campaigns in 1777 were really a great aid to the American army in the North and made it possible to defeat Burgoyne at Saratoga. VI. Write the names of as many of Washington's friends as you can. VII. Imagine yourself one of Washington's soldiers. Tell your experiences in the Continental Army and especially why you respected and loved Washington.

Map Work. — Locate Boston, Brooklyn, New York, the Delaware River, Trenton, Princeton, West Point, Brandywine Creek, Philadelphia, Germantown, Valley Forge, White Plains, Yorktown.

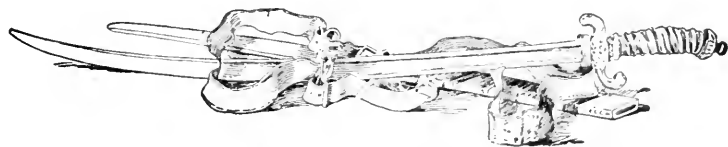
Collateral Reading

History. — Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," pp. 261-266; Cooke, "Stories of the Old Dominion," pp. 94-139.

Biography. — Scudder, "Life of Washington"; Mitchell, "Youth of Washington"; Brooks, "True Story of Washington"; Hapgood, "George Washington."

Poetry. — Bryant, "Song of Marion's Men."

Fiction. — Mitchell, "Hugh Wynne"; Stevenson, "A Soldier of Virginia"; Hoppus, "The Great Treason"; Lossing, "Two Spies"; Butterworth, "Knights of Liberty"; Butterworth, "Boys of Greenway Court"; Stoddard, "The Red Patriot"; Seawell, "A Virginia Cavalier"; Tomlinson, "Washington's Young Aids."



Washington's Sword

SCHUYLER AND SARATOGA — 1777

THE English wanted to weaken the colonies by cutting off New England from the rest. This could be done if New York were taken, because the colonists had few ships, and the English fleet could prevent communication by sea. As we know, New York city and Long Island had fallen into



General Burgoyne

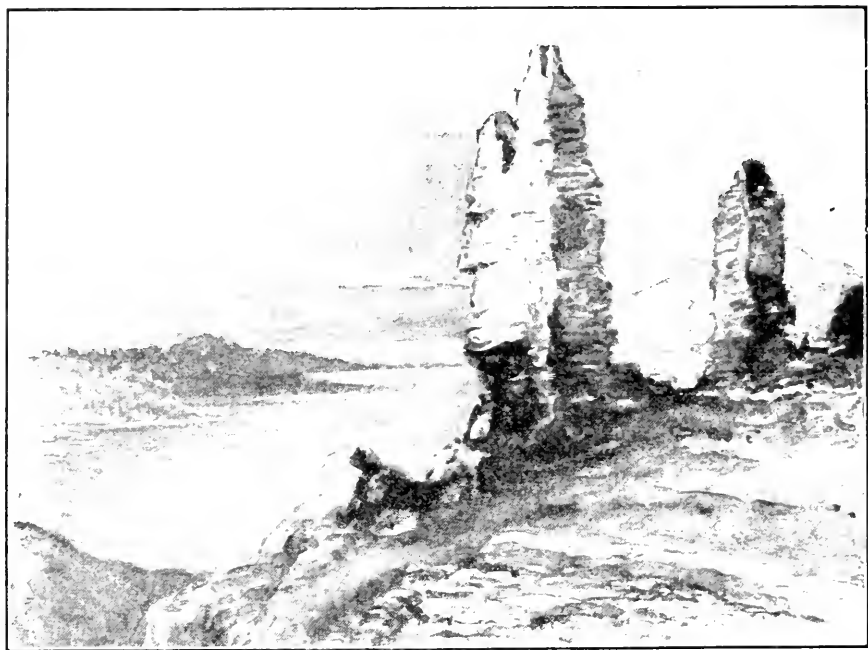
the possession of the English. It now remained to take the rest of the colony. This looked an easy matter in the war office in England; for Canada, an English possession, extended all along the northern boundary; a great number of the people in New York were Tories, or people loyal to the king, and the Iroquois Indians, too, with the exception of the Oneidas, were friendly to the English.

The plan was to invade the state from three points. Burgoyne was to enter along Lake Champlain, Howe was to send an army up the Hudson, and St. Leger with Indian allies was to enter at Oswego. Each army was to move toward Albany. The success of the undertaking, of course, depended upon each man's carrying out perfectly his instructions. Its danger to the Patriots lay in the fact that if the British forces could move swiftly and could coöperate with each other the Americans would be caught between hostile forces and easily crushed. But, as you will see by glancing

at the map, the British generals could not communicate with one another; for the unexplored wilderness of the Adirondacks lay between Burgoyne and St. Leger, and the thickly settled country of the Patriots lay between Burgoyne and the English in New York city. On the other hand, the American generals were constantly informed of the action of the enemy. General Schuyler at Albany, General Putnam on the lower Hudson, and General Washington at Morristown, had their messengers going back and forth with reports and orders.

Early in June, 1777, General Burgoyne with an army of about 8000, consisting of English regulars, German troops whom King George had hired, Canadians, and Indians, entered the Champlain valley. On July 1, they were before Ticonderoga, where a garrison of 3000 Americans was stationed. This place was well fortified and was regarded as practically impregnable, but a serious oversight made it in reality weak. Less than a mile away is a crag 600 feet high, jutting out into the lake. An English general noted this and determined to plant guns there. It was steep and rocky, but the general said, "Where a goat can go, a man can go; and where a man can go, he can haul a gun."

On the morning of July 5, the garrison in Ticonderoga were amazed to see "redcoats" and brass cannon decorating the top of this crag, which the English called Mount Defiance. A council of war was at once held, and the Americans, knowing that the fort could easily be demolished by the English guns at that elevation, decided to escape. Therefore, that night, the garrison safely crossed the lake and went to Castleton in the Green Mountains. The supplies were sent to Fort Edward, so when the English took possession of Ticonderoga they found but an empty fortress.



The Remains of Fort Ticonderoga

The taking of this fort was at first regarded by the English government as practically finishing the war, but we shall see that it meant little. Indeed, it served to weaken Burgoyne, for he felt obliged to leave 1000 of his men to hold it, and he could ill afford to spare so many men. From this time on, his great enemy was General Philip Schuyler.

Philip Schuyler was a descendant of one of the early Dutch patroons. Although he had inherited great wealth, he spent the best years of his life enduring the hardships of a soldier on the frontier. He served throughout the French and Indian War, and was made a general at the outbreak of the Revolution. He had remarkable influence with the Indians, but aroused the dislike and jealousy of the New England troops. His wisdom won for him the title of "the eye of the northern army." After a while he proved to be the good

right arm of the whole army. He was fortunate in having under his command able men and officers, like General Herkimer and Benedict Arnold,¹ who were willing to work and to fight.

When Burgoyne entered the state, Schuyler commanded the American army stationed near Albany. After the fall of Ticonderoga, he moved his base to Fort Edward, while Burgoyne reached Whitehall with little difficulty. Schuyler did not have enough men to engage the enemy in open battle, but he determined to make their advance into the state as difficult as possible.

The roads were few and bad at best. Schuyler and his men made them worse. They cut down great trees and let them fall across the roads. They blocked up streams with stones and stumps. They burned bridges and destroyed fences so that the English would have no material of which to build new ones. Schuyler finally decided that he could not hold Fort Edward, so he ordered his army to fall back to Stillwater, 30 miles above Albany.

Burgoyne and his troops started from Whitehall, and the difficulties of marching and hauling their guns and supplies

¹ This was while Arnold was still a Patriot — three years before he turned traitor.



General Schuyler

were so great that they made on an average but a mile a day. It is said that Schuyler's work had been so well done that Burgoyne's men had to build forty bridges, besides getting out the timbers for them. This delay was a serious thing, for Burgoyne's food supply was nearly gone and his men found foraging difficult. He had expected to find the farmers largely Tories, but they proved to be Patriots instead.

About this time occurred the sad death of Jane McCrea, a beautiful American girl, who was captured and murdered by Indian allies of Burgoyne. It was one of the influences that contributed to the defeat of the English, for it thoroughly aroused the people of the state to fight against the enemy.

Burgoyne now heard that the people of New England had been collecting stores of food, horses, and military supplies at Bennington, Vermont. If this place could be captured, it would furnish him what he sorely needed, and would also cripple the Americans. So in the middle of August he sent 600 men to seize the stores or take the town. But the New Englanders did not leave a place like Bennington unprotected. Every man and boy for miles around considered it his personal duty to see that those supplies were safe.

Colonel John Stark, a man who had served in the French and Indian War, and had fought at Bunker Hill, Trenton, and Princeton, was at his home in New Hampshire. A message came to him that an English army had started toward Bennington. Without waiting for orders, he collected 800 armed men and boys and hurried away. He reached Bennington and, not finding the enemy near, pushed out on the road and met them six miles away, near the village of Hoosick Falls in New York. The English were warned and took up a strong position for defense. It had rained for two or three

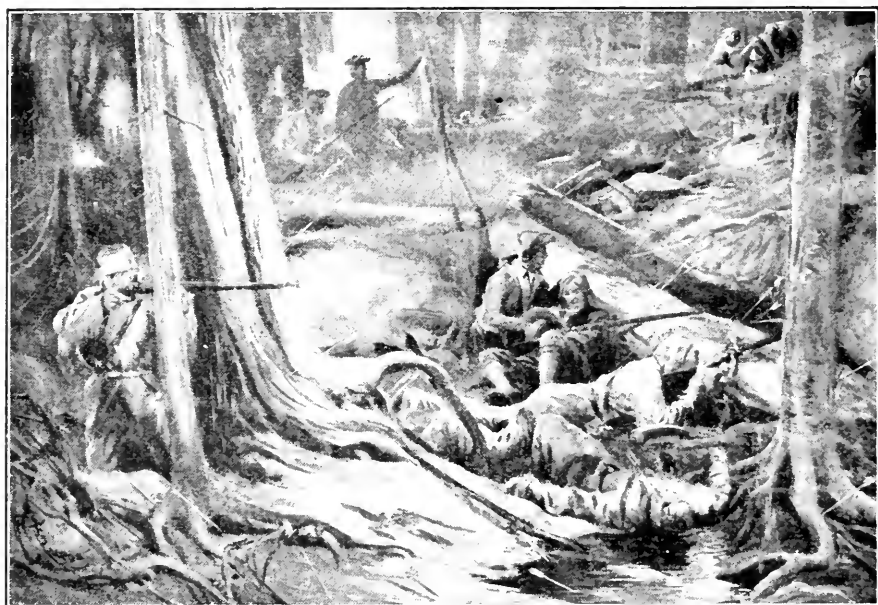
days. It still rained, so Colonel Stark waited in sight but out of reach. Green Mountain boys, Berkshire militia, and New England farmers kept coming to join Stark's army. They were a queer looking crowd, having no uniforms, and no bayonets, but armed with all kinds of muskets and shot guns.

The morning of August 16th was bright and hot. Stark made ready to attack the English. He had been sending men in groups of ten or a dozen to the rear of the fortified position of the English. If they were seen, they aroused no suspicion, for they looked little like soldiers. Finally, about noon Stark ordered an attack. The first firing in front was to be the signal for the men in the rear also to fire. The English were amazed to find almost as large an army back of them as in front. In less than two hours the English commander was wounded and his army captured. Just then a fresh band of 500 came up as reënforcements, but strangely enough an equal number of fresh American troops appeared and again surrounded the invaders, who were soon captured or scattered. In this battle near Bennington, Burgoyne lost 1000 men, of whom 700 were taken prisoners. The effect upon the English was most depressing, while, of course, the Americans were jubilant.

We recall that St. Leger was to enter the state at Oswego and move along the Mohawk valley. Fort Stanwix, — also called Fort Schuyler, — on the site of the city of Rome, commanded the entrance to the valley from the west. St. Leger reached there early in August. General Herkimer,¹ in command of the militia in the Mohawk valley, hearing of his approach, had hurried forward to relieve the

¹ Herkimer's home, a quaint old colonial mansion, built of red brick, is still standing on the south bank of the Mohawk River two miles east of the city of Little Falls, N. Y.

fort. He reached Oriskany, and planned that, at a given signal, the garrison from the fort should rush out and attack St. Leger, while Herkimer and his men should attack him from the rear. But a mistake was made, and Herkimer's men, becoming impatient because they did not hear the signal guns, wanted to push forward. The Indian scouts had warned St. Leger of their approach, and his



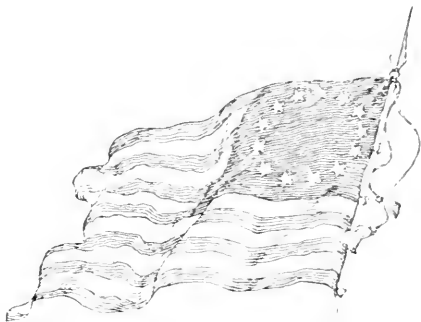
The Battle of Oriskany

Indian allies hurried out to a place where the road crossed a swampy ravine. Here an ambush was formed, and when Herkimer and his men in a long line of march entered this ravine, they were attacked from all sides. The fighting was horrible, but Herkimer's men held their ground for hours. Late in the afternoon, to add to the horror, a terrible thunderstorm broke on them. The superstitious Indians gave way and fled, and the remnant of the English were also glad to

leave. The Patriots held the field, but their commander Herkimer was mortally wounded.¹

When the fight was over, they heard the signal guns from the fort, telling them that the garrison was starting out. By this time St. Leger's men were badly scattered and the Indian allies had become unmanageable, so the fresh soldiers from the fort easily routed them. They captured from St. Leger's camp, besides blankets, food, and ammunition, five English flags.

When the garrison returned to the fort they hoisted these English flags upside down, and high above them a new flag of red, white, and blue. Congress had recently adopted this style of flag, but the armies had not been supplied with them. The flag at Fort Stanwix had been hurriedly made of pieces of flannel and cotton that were at hand, and it claims the honor of being the first American stars and stripes flung to the breeze. This was August 6, 1777.



The First American Stars and Stripes

St. Leger had to fall back to a place of safety where he could repair his losses and win over the sullen Indian allies, who were deserting him. Word of this battle at Oriskany was hurriedly sent to Schuyler, and a call for help was made. Schuyler saw the need and was ready to send help; but his officers objected, for it would weaken the army that must face Burgoyne. He was, however, determined to relieve

¹ A beautiful monument fittingly marks the spot where this battle was fought.

Fort Stanwix, and was willing to assume the sole responsibility for it. Finally he cried out: "Where is the brigadier who will go?" Benedict Arnold replied, "Here he is! Washington sent me here to make myself useful; I will go." Very soon 1200 Massachusetts men had volunteered to go with him.

They started immediately, but the roads were so poor and marching was so slow, that after a week they were still twenty miles from Fort Stanwix. One day, two brothers were captured as Tory spies. They were first sentenced to death. Then an idea came to Arnold, and he agreed to spare their lives if the younger, Yan Yost, a half-witted youth, would run on ahead to spread alarm among St. Leger's men. The elder brother was kept as a hostage.

St. Leger's scouts had heard that an American army was coming up the Mohawk valley, and while the matter was being discussed in camp, Yan Yost came running in with bullet holes in his clothes. With a frightened manner he said that he had had a narrow escape from the American army. They asked him how large the approaching army was, and he declared the soldiers were as numerous as the leaves on the trees. Very likely Arnold's army did seem very large to him when he was under sentence of death as a spy. He was recognized as a Tory and his story was believed. The Indians deserted. The camp became panic-stricken, and by noon the next day, August 22, St. Leger's army had melted away. The few who clung to the general were set upon by unfriendly Indians before they reached Oswego; so it was but a handful of soldiers who sailed with St. Leger for Montreal a few days later.

The battle of Oriskany, unimportant in itself, and the failure of St. Leger's expedition, were nevertheless of the

greatest importance in their effect upon the fortunes of the war for independence. The heroic frontiersmen who defended the outpost at Fort Stanwix, the rash bravery of Herkimer and his men, and the shrewdness and courage of Arnold checked St. Leger and his allies, and prevented their sweeping through the Mohawk valley and coöperating with Burgoyne. This made possible the American victory at Saratoga, of which we are next to read.

We know that General Howe, instead of coming up the Hudson to fulfill his part of the plan, had gone to Philadelphia, where Washington was keeping him occupied. Burgoyne's position north of Albany was becoming critical. He had been deprived of the help of the other two armies, and had lost heavily at Bennington. The farmers about him were hostile, and food was very difficult to get.

At just this time, when the prospect of driving Burgoyne out of the state was very good, some of Schuyler's enemies succeeded in getting Congress to take the command away from him. General Gates, who had never been known to do much but boast, was appointed to take his place and reap the fruits of Schuyler's hard work. Schuyler's fine, manly character showed itself at this time. He courteously handed over the authority to Gates and assured him that he would be glad to aid him in any way he could. Gates showed his baseness by not even asking General



General Gates

Schuyler to his first council of officers. This change of commanders would have been disastrous had it not been for the presence of the fighting General Arnold, who, as we shall see, was responsible for the victories at Bemis Heights or Stillwater.

On September 13, Burgoyne crossed to the west bank of the Hudson and moved toward Albany, fifty miles south.



Arnold in a Charge at the Second Battle of Freeman's Farm

The American army under Gates was intrenched on a ridge known as Bemis Heights. The right wing covered the road to Albany, the center was protected by dense woods, and the left under Arnold lay a little in advance in the open fields. On September 18, the English army camped two miles from this position. The next morning, Arnold with about 3000 men was sent to check the advance of the enemy, and a hard battle was fought on Freeman's farm, while the main part

of the American army was idle on Bemis Heights. Long after dark, Arnold drew his men back to the intrenchments, and the English slept on the field.

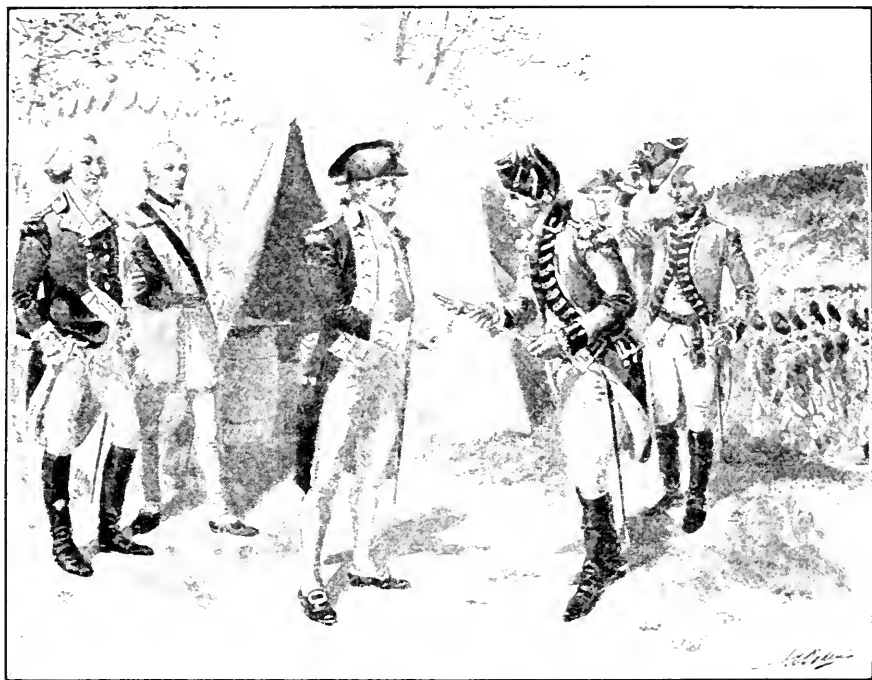
The two armies remained opposite each other until October 7, when Burgoyne invited battle, apparently to cover the work of a foraging party. This battle also was fought on Freeman's farm, and Arnold was again a hero. These two battles have been called by various names, as Bemis Heights, Stillwater, and Freeman's Farm; and to-day the place is known as Schuylerville.

General Burgoyne now led the remnant of his army in retreat to Saratoga, stopping on the way to burn the beautiful summer home of General Schuyler. He soon found, to his surprise, that his little army was actually surrounded by at least 20,000 men, hostile and armed, if not all regularly enlisted soldiers. Burgoyne saw it was hopeless to resist, and sent to Gates, asking what terms of surrender would be accepted.

It was agreed that the English should break camp, stack their arms, march through Massachusetts to Boston, and sail at once for Europe with the understanding that none of them should serve again during the war in America.

We can picture to ourselves the army of gallant English soldiers and German veterans under Burgoyne's command as they marched out of camp, October 17, 1777. They piled their guns, swords, and cartridge belts in a corner of the field near the river. Then they formed in line and marched past the American troops. An English officer afterward said: "I did not observe the least disrespect or even a taunting look, but all was mute astonishment and pity." Burgoyne stepped forward and handed his sword to General Gates, saying, "The fortunes of war have made me your prisoner."

The American general returned the sword, saying, "I shall always be ready to testify that it has not been through any fault of your Excellency."



The Surrender of Burgoyne

The wife and children of one of the officers were brought into camp just after the surrender, and in the following passage she has told how she was received. "As I approached the tents a noble-looking gentleman came toward me, took the children out of the wagon, and embraced and kissed them; and then with tears in his eyes, helped me to alight. Presently he said, 'It may be embarrassing to you to dine with so many gentlemen. If you will come with your children to my tent, I will give you a frugal meal, but one seasoned with good wishes.'" This man was General Schuyler.

Schuyler showed in many other ways his generous spirit.

When, a few days later, Burgoyne expressed to him regret that the English soldiers had burned his beautiful country home at Saratoga, Schuyler urged the English general to think no more about it, saying that, according to the rules of war, it was justifiable. When Burgoyne started for Albany, Schuyler furnished an escort who took the English general to Schuyler's city home, where Burgoyne was cordially received by Mrs. Schuyler and entertained for several days.

The surrender of Burgoyne near Saratoga in October, 1777, is regarded as the turning point in the Revolutionary War. It not only saved New York state and disposed of a whole army, but it influenced France to send aid to the colonies, thus enlisting that powerful nation on our side in the struggle with England.

Topical Outline. — England planned to cut off New England by taking New York. Burgoyne was to enter by Lake Champlain, Howe by the Hudson River and St. Leger at Oswego, each to move toward Albany. Fall of Ticonderoga. Schuyler blocked up Burgoyne's roads. A mile a day. English defeated at Bennington. Battle at Oriskany. Herkimer killed. Stars and Stripes raised over Fort Stanwix. Burgoyne surrounded; surrendered October 17, 1777. Chief result, aid from France.

For Written Work. — I. Indicate on outline map the routes taken by English armies and places where battles were fought. II. Write a story, from imagination or memory, of the making of the flag at Fort Stanwix. III. What were the weak points in the English plan of invading New York? IV. Write a paragraph to show that Washington helped in bringing about Burgoyne's surrender.

Map Work. — Locate Montreal, Lake Champlain, Lake George, Ticonderoga, Whitehall, Bennington, Fort Edward, Bemis Heights, Stillwater, Oswego, Fort Stanwix (Fort Schuyler), Oriskany.

Collateral Reading

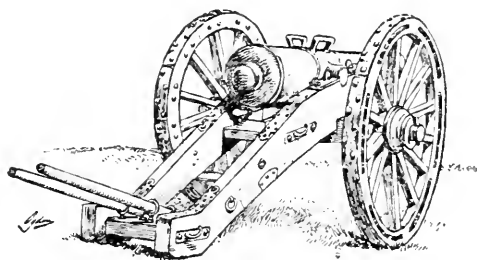
History. — Prentice, "History of New York State," pp. 262-275; Williams, "Stories from Early New York History," pp. 182-190; Brooks,

"Century Book of the American Revolution," pp. 159-173. Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," pp. 253-265; 272-279.

Biography. — Tuckerman, "Philip Schuyler."

Fiction. — Frederic, "In the Valley"; Altsheler, "The Sun of Saratoga"; Thompson, "The Green Mountain Boys"; Otis, "Boys of Fort Schuyler"; Tomlinson, "Two Young Patriots."

Note. — Those desiring to refer to a somewhat similar campaign in the Champlain valley during the French and Indian War will find the material in Foote and Skinner's "Explorers and Founders of America," pp. 300-302.



Cannon used in the Revolution

GENERAL NATHANAEL GREENE

NATHANAEL GREENE was a descendant of John Greene, who with Roger Williams settled in Rhode Island in 1636. He was born in 1742. His father was a rich man, owning a forge, a sawmill, a gristmill, and a general store, besides many acres of land.

Nathanael was the fifth of nine children. He was a sturdy boy of happy disposition and very bright mind. His father, however, did not believe in much education. He had his children learn to read and write, but he believed that the Bible was the only book worthy of study. The boy wanted to go to school, and when he was fourteen he met a college boy who told of his work. Nathanael then teased his father until he gained permission to study Latin and geometry for a time with a tutor.

Although the father was a rich man, he did not allow the boy much spending money. Nathanael, knowing his father's prejudice against books, did not ask for money to buy them. Instead he watched the men at the forge until he was able to make some toy anchors, which he took to Newport and sold. With the money he went to a bookstore and said that he wanted to buy a book. When asked what book, he really did not know. A man standing near heard the boy, and



General Greene

not only helped him to select a book, but told him of others good to read. This first visit to a bookstore was made when Nathanael was fifteen. It was often repeated until, when he became a man, he had a well-selected library.

We know that Quakers do not believe in war. Although Nathanael had been brought up a Quaker, in 1773 he believed it was the duty of all people to resist the English oppression and defend the rights of the colonists. He began to attend military parades and to talk about organizing a company. Such conduct could not be excused, so he was expelled from the Quaker Meeting. This same thing happened with many other young men brought up in the Quaker belief.

Greene helped to organize what was known as the "Kentish Guards," a company of young men who secured a good drill master and trained so faithfully that during the war they furnished to the army thirty-two officers of distinction. When word came of the battles of Lexington and Concord, Greene started at once for Concord. A few weeks later, Rhode Island had raised three regiments, and Greene was appointed their commander. They joined the army near Boston. When Washington took command in July, 1775, Greene, although but thirty-three years of age, was selected as one of the eight brigadiers general. This was the beginning of a close personal friendship between the two men, which lasted until General Greene's death.

We recall that Washington, having succeeded in driving the English from Boston in March, 1776, then hurried to hold New York. Greene was placed in command of the troops on Long Island. He made himself perfectly familiar with all the roads, hills, and places of landing on the island. His troops were under good discipline, and work was going on nicely, when he was taken sick with fever just five days before

the battle of Long Island. This was most unfortunate, and General Greene for months afterward could not get over the bitter disappointment that he was not able to command his men at so critical a time. From this time until 1780 he was in every battle fought by Washington, save that at White Plains.

Every year since the war began, the English had made attempts to get possession of the southern states, but not until December, 1779, did they make extensive plans to do so. Then Clinton and Cornwallis with 8000 men sailed for Savannah, which they took with little difficulty. They then moved north, and after a siege of two months took Charleston.

General Gates was sent south in June, 1780, to check the progress of the English. In August, Gates was defeated and his army destroyed by Cornwallis at Camden, S. C. A few weeks later Cornwallis sent a band of 1200 men back into the mountains of South Carolina to enlist Tories. There proved to be fewer in the region than they supposed; and the backwoodsmen, hearing of the approach of the English, began to swarm on their trail. These hardy mountaineers were good shots and knew every inch of the country. They were used to exposure and the difficulties of wilderness fighting. When the English leader realized the hostility of these men, he took up a position on Kings Mountain, where he thought he could easily defeat them. The Americans knew the mountain better than he, and they charged up the steep sides in three divisions. Desperate fighting followed, but the English were utterly defeated. The Americans captured 1500 stands of arms, which they sorely needed. This victory in October served to offset the crushing defeat of Gates in August.

Meanwhile Greene was on his way south, not only to take

command but to create an army in the southern states and to drive out the English. Washington gave Greene full authority to do whatever in his judgment seemed best under the circumstances. It was probably the most important commission granted to any general during the war. General Greene was unacquainted with the character of the country and with the resources at his command. He was not the man to hesitate, however, when Washington asked him to do anything. So without even bidding his wife and children good-by, he hurried off to South Carolina.

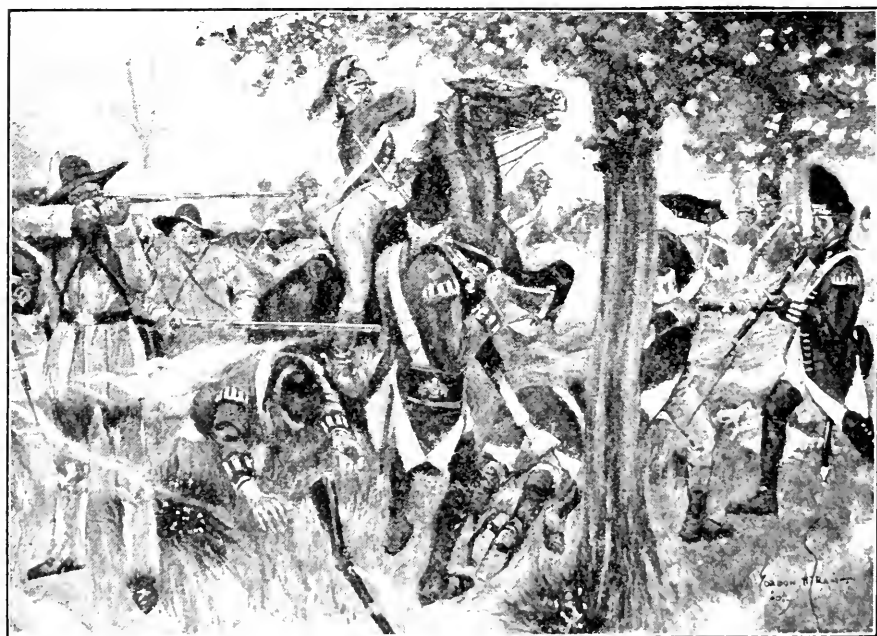
Cornwallis and Greene had met on many battlefields, and they had great respect for each other's ability. Cornwallis once wrote, "Greene is as dangerous as Washington; he is vigilant, enterprising, and full of resources. With but little hope of gaining an advantage over him, I never feel secure when encamped in his neighborhood." General Greene was thirty-eight and Cornwallis four years older. Both men had small armies under command, and the field of operation was immense. "The game was played with the greatest skill on both sides, and no campaign in American history has illustrated the art of war in its highest branches more fully than the campaign of 1781," says one writer.

General Greene made friends of the sharpshooters and the unorganized backwoodsmen who had won the victory at Kings Mountain. He learned from these men the lay of the land and the positions of the English troops. Unlike General Gates, he saw the value of cavalry troops, and he was fortunate in having Colonel William Washington and Major Henry Lee (Light Horse Harry) as cavalry leaders.

We must remember that the English were holding Charleston on the coast, and Augusta, Fort Ninety-six, and other points in the interior from which to draw army supplies.

These places are arranged in crescent shape, with one point on the coast, and the other in the mountains of South Carolina. Greene decided to divide his army, keeping one division in the east at Cheraw to threaten the right wing on the coast, and sending the other division under General Morgan to threaten the interior points held by the English. Each division was made up of militia, regulars, cavalry, and sharpshooters. This action of Greene's compelled Cornwallis also to divide his army. For, if he attacked Greene in the east, Morgan would take the places in the west; while, if he started toward Morgan, Greene would take the coast towns and cut off his base on the sea.

Cornwallis was now in a serious dilemma, but he did the best he could. He sent a brave young leader with half his force to check Morgan in the west, while he pushed into



The Battle of Cowpens

North Carolina, hoping to draw Greene after him. On the approach of the English, Morgan was near Kings Mountain. He chose a cattle-grazing ground, known as Cowpens, for his position, and arranged his men with care. He placed his militia in front; back of them hidden by trees were the regular troops, while Colonel Washington's cavalry were behind them near the river. The English made their attack. The militia, after firing a few volleys, swung around as if to retreat. The English closed ranks to follow them and came up in front of the regulars, then the cavalry rode around the ends of the battle line and hemmed in the English. A short fight followed, and the English were overwhelmingly defeated. In this battle at Cowpens, Cornwallis lost over one third of his forces in the South, besides 1000 stands of arms.

Morgan immediately moved northeast to join Greene. Cornwallis tried to intercept him, but failed. Then General Greene determined to draw Cornwallis north, far away from his base of supplies, and compel him to fight. Cornwallis did not understand the trick, and as Greene rapidly retreated through North Carolina, Cornwallis followed.

Thirty miles from the Virginia border Greene took up his position at Guilford Courthouse. Cornwallis was eager for battle, and for five hours on March 15 the two armies fought desperately. At nightfall General Greene retired, leaving Lord Cornwallis in possession of the field, but with an army too badly whipped to move. Cornwallis could claim the victory at Guilford, but it was meaningless, for he was left in a hostile country two hundred miles from his base of supplies with a small remnant of 1600 men. He dared not try to march back to South Carolina, but he could not stay where he was, so he hurried to Wilmington. He remained there but two weeks; then he marched to Petersburg, Virginia, to join

other English troops and move on toward Yorktown, where in the fall he was obliged to surrender.

After the battle at Guilford, General Greene returned south, and with Major Henry Lee, Morgan, and Colonel Washington succeeded by March, 1782, in retaking all the places held by the English in the Carolinas and Georgia. Fiske says of the work of Greene: "So consummate had been his strategy that, whether victorious or defeated on the field, he had, in every instance, gained the object for which the campaign was made."

General Greene remained in the South until July, 1783, when he started north on horseback. In fifteen weeks he rode a thousand miles, passing through towns and cities where he was always welcomed as a great war hero. The winter of 1783-1784 he spent in Newport with his wife and four children, whom he had not seen together for nine years. The following summer, he returned to Georgia to make his future home.

He had a large, comfortable house, with plenty of books in the library and horses in the stable. His wife and children were with him, and he had apparently everything he wished for. In a letter written to a friend in April, 1786, he says: "We are planting. We have got upwards of 60 acres of corn planted and expect to plant 130 acres of rice. The garden is delightful. . . . We have in the same orchard apples, pears, peaches, apricots, nectarines, plums, figs, pomegranates and oranges. And we have strawberries that measure three inches around." After eight years of the soldier's life, he found the life of a country gentleman very attractive.

On June 13, 1786, he was out in the rice fields several hours in the middle of the day and suffered a sunstroke, from which he died three days later, at the age of forty-four.

General Wayne (Mad Anthony), who was with him, wrote to a friend: "He was a great soldier, greater as a citizen, immaculate as a friend. . . . Pardon this scrawl; my feelings are too much affected, because I have seen a great and good man die."

"The patient, brave, enduring, often defeated but never conquered man, the hard fighting soldier, the keen strategist had gone to his reward at last. His work was done and well done," says Senator Lodge.

Topical Outline. — General Greene's boyhood and character. Early career as a soldier. English invasion of the South. Greene sent — his army and methods. Cowpens. Greene's retreat to Guilford Courthouse. Cornwallis outgeneraled, goes to Virginia. Greene retakes the Carolinas and Georgia. Greene as a man.

For Written Work. — I. On an outline map trace routes taken by both English and American armies. Mark battlefields. II. In a paragraph explain how a commander may be defeated in battle and really win a victory.

Map Work. — Locate Savannah, Charleston, Camden, Kings Mountain, Cowpens, Guilford Courthouse, Wilmington, N. C., Yorktown.

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Greene, "General Greene."

Fiction. — Frost, "The Swamp Fox."

NATHAN HALE — THE MARTYR SPY

AFTER the battle of Long Island, Washington placed his army in the best positions for holding Manhattan Island. Expecting the enemy to follow him at once, he held himself ready for defense at any time. Days went by, and the English did not come. Washington could not understand their delay. He feared that they were planning another move, and he wanted to find out what. If their positions on Long Island were exposed, he might turn around and strike them. Good generalship demanded that he know how things stood within the enemy's lines. He asked for a volunteer to go as a spy. Nathan Hale, a young captain, offered to go.

Nathan Hale was born in Coventry, Connecticut, June 6, 1755. His parents were people of means and refinement. As a child, he was delicate and was very tenderly reared. When he grew up, he became fond of outdoor life and sports and developed into a fine, strong young man. His father wished him to become a minister, so he was prepared for college by the Rev. Joseph Huntington. His mind was quick, and he readily responded to books and instruction. He was graduated from Yale at eighteen. His commencement speech was an argument in favor of giving girls the same educational privileges as boys.

Nathan Hale is described at this time as being "almost six feet in height, perfectly proportioned, and in figure and development . . . the most manly man I have ever seen. His chest was broad; his muscles were firm; his face

wore a most benign expression; his complexion was fresh; his eyes were light blue and beamed with intelligence; his hair was soft and light brown in color, and his speech was rather low, sweet and musical. His personal beauty and grace of manner were most charming. In dress he was always neat; he was quick to lend a helping hand to a being in distress, brute or human; he was overflowing with good humor and was loved by all who knew him."

He taught school most successfully for nearly two years, until word came of the battle of Lexington. Then in a public speech he urged men to action. He said, "Let us march immediately, and never lay down our arms until we have obtained our independence."

He at once enlisted and was made lieutenant. In September, his regiment was ordered to Cambridge, where he shared in the siege of Boston. In January, 1776, he was made captain, and after the English were driven out of Boston he went with Washington to New York. During the summer, he served in building fortifications on Manhattan Island. He was not in the battle of Long Island, but a few days later, with a small band of picked men, he captured at midnight a supply boat that was anchored under the guns of an English war ship. It was a daring feat and neatly done, without any loss save a little time. The food was distributed among the hungry soldiers in the patriot army.

When Washington called for a volunteer to enter the enemy's lines, Hale offered to go. He knew perfectly well what he was doing. He knew the work was the work of a spy. He knew that if he were recognized by the English, it would be death for him. He also knew that such information as he could get would be of great value to Washington. It might possibly save the country. If so, it was worth his life.

In any case, Washington wanted to know the plans of the enemy: that of itself was enough. When he entered the army he entered for service. He was a subordinate officer. His commander said, "Who will undertake this work?" "I will," was the cheerful reply of Captain Hale.

He disguised himself as a traveling schoolmaster and crossed the Sound from Connecticut to Long Island. He got a pass into the lines. Wherever he went he talked as a Tory, showing a friendly feeling for the English. He went about freely, visited all the places indicated in his orders, such as Brooklyn, Flatbush, and the great English camps from Bushwick to Jamaica. He made note of the fortifications; few of those built by the Americans had been repaired. He had done his work well and was about to return, when he was recognized by a Tory relative, who reported the matter to General Howe.

Hale had planned to cross the Sound to Connecticut from Huntington on the north shore of Long Island. Just as he was stepping into his boat, he was arrested and taken to Howe's headquarters. When charged with being a spy, he denied nothing. He gave his name and rank in the American army, and surrendered his notes and papers. He was then condemned to death.

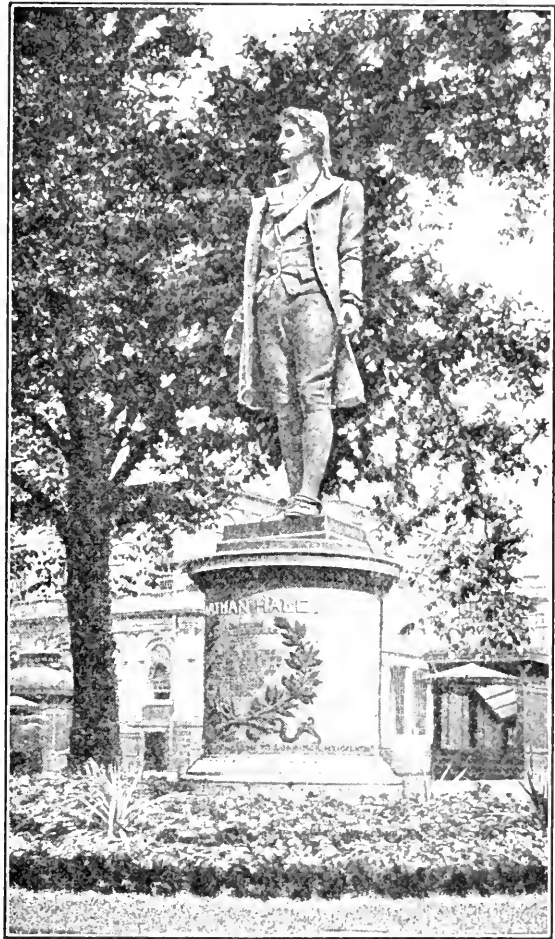
He asked for writing materials; one of his keepers gave them, and he wrote a few notes of farewell to the members of his family and to friends. Then he asked that a clergyman might come to him, but this was denied. He asked that he might have a Bible to read during the few hours left for him to live; that, too, was denied him.

The officer who led him out to the scaffold on the evening of September 22, 1776, tauntingly said, "This is a fine death for a soldier to die." Captain Hale replied, "If I had ten

thousand lives to live, I would lay them down in defense of my injured and bleeding country." Another officer stepped forward, holding the letters that Hale had written the night before, and tore them up before the eyes of the young hero. But even that did not cause him to flinch, and his last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country."

There is always some one who is sympathetic at such a time. Hale probably thought no one stood by who would report to his friends how he met that last trial. But men were there who were fired with admiration for him and told of his death in spite of the fact that the English officers said, "The rebels shall never know that they had a man who could die with such firmness."

Near Huntington, at Halesite, where he was arrested, is a large boulder with a bronze tablet to the memory of this brave young man. And in City Hall Park, New York, is the



Statue of Nathan Hale, New York

beautiful bronze statue of the boyish figure as he stood bound for execution. It is a daily reminder to the thousands hurrying by, that our independence was bought by some of the best blood of the land.

Topical Outline. — Washington's army on Manhattan Island. English army on Long Island. Washington needed to know of the plans of the English. Captain Hale offered to enter the enemy's lines. His life's work. His manly death.

For Written Work. — I. Why do you like Nathan Hale? II. If Hale had returned safe, show how his work might have helped Washington.

Collateral Reading

Poetry. — Francis M. Finch, "Nathan Hale."



Hale Monument at Huntington

JOHN PAUL JONES — FOUNDER OF THE AMERICAN NAVY

WHEN the Revolutionary War broke out, England was mistress of the seas. Her navy was the largest and best in Europe: she had at least one thousand well-armed ships. America had practically none. The need for war ships was greatly felt by Washington, and efforts were made to build and man vessels for service. The first undertakings did not amount to much, but after 1777 the American navy did some good work, largely through the splendid efforts of John Paul Jones.

John Paul was born in Scotland in the summer of 1747. His father was a gardener, a man of quiet manner and humble tastes. His mother was of Highland birth. Probably the boy inherited much of his love of adventure and daring spirit from his Highland ancestors. His childhood was brief. His school days were few, for at the age of twelve John Paul had learned to manage a fishing boat in very rough weather off the Scottish coasts — an exercise that certainly could not be called child's play.

John Paul's eldest brother, William, had some years before been adopted by a distant relative, William Jones,



John Paul Jones

a Virginia planter, and had taken the name of William Paul Jones. When John Paul was thirteen he was bound as shipmaster's apprentice to James Younger, owner of the *Friendship*. His first long sea voyage was to Virginia in 1760 for a cargo of tobacco. On this trip he met for the first time his brother William. The old planter, William Jones, took a fancy to the thirteen-year-old lad and wanted to adopt him, but the boy preferred the sailor's life. He remained with Mr. Younger four years, and made several voyages to the West Indies and to the coasts of Africa. Before he was twenty, he was made captain. The most profitable form of traffic was that in negroes taken from Africa and sold as slaves in the South. Our young captain disliked this so that early in his career he absolutely refused to have anything to do with such business.

During these years, John Paul visited many cities and met many merchants and bankers. His business sense was keen, and as his grasp of foreign languages was also quick, he became an excellent student of French. In fact, he knew it so well that he wrote in it quite as readily as in English. It is interesting that our knowledge of him to-day is largely gained from his French papers.

In 1773 his brother in Virginia died, and he then went to settle the estate. The life of the planter appealed to him, so he remained and became a genuine American. Soon after this, William Jones, the old gentleman who had adopted his brother, died and left his property to John Paul, provided he took the name of Jones. From this time he was known as John Paul Jones and as such became famous.

In the summer of 1775 the Continental Congress determined to create a naval force and sent for Captain John Paul Jones to tell them what kind of ships were best and

what qualities were necessary for a naval commander. They also asked his aid in purchasing ships. Although he was but twenty-eight, his judgment was sound on these questions and was followed by Congress so far as their money would allow.

By December, Congress had succeeded in getting five vessels, and Jones was made first lieutenant of one called *Alfred*. It was on this ship the following November (1776), that Jones with his own hands raised the first American naval flag. This flag consisted of thirteen stripes, and instead of stars there was a pine tree, at the base of which was coiled a snake with the words:

"Don't tread on me." Two years later his ship received from a French commander the first salute ever given to an American flag by a foreign man-of-war.



The First Naval Flag

Congress, for political reasons, put Commodore Hopkins, a man of less experience, in command of the first fleet. In February, 1776, the little fleet went to Nassau on the island of New Providence in the Bahama group (about 200 miles from the coast of southern Florida), where was collected a large amount of military stores. The town was poorly defended, and was captured with little trouble. The Americans secured 88 cannon, 15 large mortars, 11,000 rounds of shot, and 20 casks of powder, and sailed home with their precious cargo. After this cruise Captain Jones was given an independent command, and whatever he undertook always had a dash and daring which made it most thrilling.

One of the first expeditions was against the Cape Breton fisheries. He found three English schooners in a harbor. He sank one and burned another, after transferring the cargo to the third. When this was done, he learned that nine other English boats were on the other side of the bay. The dauntless captain cornered these boats and told the crews that if they would help him fit out such of the vessels as he wished for his use, he would let them return to England in safety. They set to work and helped him, and then he sent the crews off to England in three small vessels that he did not care for. In six weeks, without bloodshed, he had broken up the Cape Breton fishing, had captured valuable cargoes, and had taken sixteen vessels, eight of which he destroyed while the others were refitted and added to the American service.



American Seaman

Captain Jones was a shrewd and skillful sailor. He knew that his ships were not armed heavily enough to engage the English ships in battle, so he confined his work to intercepting supply boats in or near the harbors. Once finding a provision boat aground at the entrance to a harbor, he stole up and burned it. At another time he captured a boat loaded with clothing and ammunition for the English army. These supplies were turned over to Washington's soldiers, who greatly needed them. He seized vessels loaded with coal and towed them to his own stations. All of these enterprises were on a small scale, but they served steadily to cripple the English and to add a little to the resources of the Americans.



American Marine

After the surrender of Burgoyne in October, 1777, France became an ally of America. So in 1778, when Jones was sent to prowl around the British coast, he used that country as the base from which to make his raids. His ships were small and swift. England never dreamed that an American ship would have the audacity to venture near her shore, so at first she was off her guard. One day Jones met a ship with a cargo of flax crossing the English Channel. He took it, sent the crew to France, and sank the ship. If he overhauled a ship having a valuable cargo, it was placed under proper command and sent to France, while he hurried on his way. At one time, while in command of the *Ranger*, he slipped into the harbor of Whitehaven, on the northwest coast of England, set fire to the shipping there, and was out and far on his way before the fire was discovered.

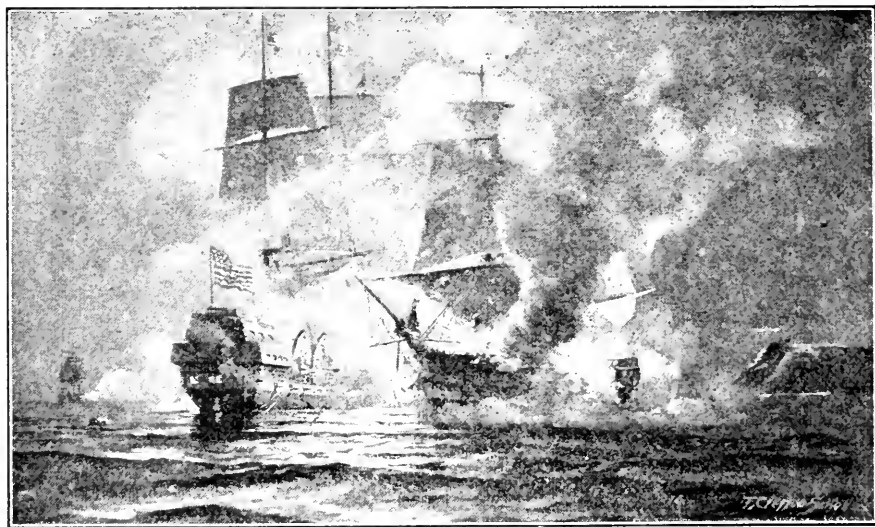
At another time he landed, seized a nobleman, and took him on board ship, without injury or discourtesy, to hold in exchange for some prisoner. In all these activities, Jones was never known to show cruel treatment to anyone, not even to the crews of captured vessels.

Benjamin Franklin, minister to France, had supervision of all the naval affairs of the colonies. Through his influence, several excellent ships of French build were secured. One of these in 1779 was assigned to Captain Jones. He at once renamed it *Bon Homme Richard* as a compliment to Franklin, the author of "Poor Richard's Almanac." It was this ship that won the famous battle with the *Serapis*.

On September 17, 1779, Jones with his little squadron of four ships attempted to enter the harbor of Leith, Scotland, but a heavy gale prevented. Scott, who was a boy at the time, has described the event in "Waverley." He says, "A steady and powerful west wind settled the matter by sweep-

ing Paul Jones and his vessels out of the Firth." A few days later, Captain Jones destroyed several vessels in the Humber River. On September 23, he caught sight of a fleet of forty merchant vessels protected by the *Serapis* off Flamborough Head, on the northeast coast of England. Captain Jones ordered his vessels to give chase. The merchant vessels hurried out of the way, but the *Serapis* accepted his challenge.

The fight began at half past seven in the evening, and lasted



The Bon Homme Richard and the Serapis

four hours. The *Serapis* had heavier guns, and to nullify their terrible work Captain Jones grappled her and lashed the two ships together side by side. The firing was furious and deadly. When the *Richard* began to leak Jones released over a hundred prisoners and made them work at the pumps. The firing was so incessant that the men were almost crazed. The powder boys on board the *Serapis*, whose duty it was to bring up the cartridges for the gunners, became so fright-

ened that they flung some cartridges on deck and fled to cover. A hand grenade thrown from the *Richard* set fire to them, and the explosion was awful. Both ships were on fire, but fire could be checked more easily than the terrible rents in the hulls could be mended.

Finally, about midnight, the brave commander of the *Serapis* saw that all was lost for him, and with his own hands he struck his flag. Captain Jones then took possession of the *Serapis*, for the *Richard* had three feet of water in the hold.

The rest of the night was spent in getting the wounded removed to safety and in trying to keep the *Richard* afloat. The next day she had to be abandoned. Captain Jones wrote: "A little after ten o'clock I saw, with inexpressible grief, the last glimpse of the *Bon Homme Richard*. No lives were lost as the boat went down." Captain Jones tried to reach a French port with the *Serapis* and his 500 prisoners, but the crippled condition of the captive ship made a stop in Holland necessary.

This victory was a marvel to all Europe. Respect for America grew. Captain Jones was the hero of the day. The king of France made him a Knight of the Order of Merit, and gave him a gold sword. The captain tried to exchange his prisoners, including the commander of the *Serapis*, for the Americans kept in English dungeons, but for months the offer was rejected. It is estimated that he had taken or destroyed a hundred English vessels during his three years on the sea.

Early in 1781 Captain John Paul Jones returned to America, where Congress and the people in many ways showed their gratitude for his faithful work.

In 1787, the Revolutionary War being over, he entered the service of Russia as rear admiral and won a great victory

over the Turks. Shortly afterward, he returned to America and took up the life of a planter. Although he had never married, his home was made beautiful and hospitable, but he did not remain long in it. He was appointed consul to Algiers in 1792, but died in Paris, on his way thither, at the age of forty-five. He was given a stately funeral and was buried in Paris. In the summer of 1905, one hundred and thirteen years later, his body was brought to America and placed in a tomb at Annapolis, Maryland, the seat of America's Naval Academy.

Topical Outline. — Acquainted with the sea as a young boy. Served four years a shipmaster's apprentice. In 1773 went to Virginia, was made William Jones's heir, and became John Paul Jones. Entered naval service of the colonies. Captured many English vessels. *Bon Homme Richard* and *Serapis*. America's debt to him.

For Written Work. — I. Imagine you are a member of the crew on the *Bon Homme Richard*; describe your experiences. II. Write a paragraph stating why the capture of merchant vessels is good warfare.

Map Work. — Locate Nassau, Whitehaven, Flamborough Head.

Collateral Reading

History. — Abbott, "Blue Jackets of '76," pp. 83-154; Beebe, "Four American Naval Heroes," pp. 17-68.

Biography. — Abbott, "Paul Jones"; Brady, "Paul Jones"; Sewell, "Paul Jones"; Hapgood, "Paul Jones."

Fiction. — Cooper, "The Pilot."

THE CRITICAL PERIOD

WHEN the colonies resolved to resist the tyranny of the mother country, they saw that there must be some central authority to direct this resistance. Their delegates had met in conventions to consider plans of union, and from these conventions had issued protests to the king and appeals to the colonists. How this growing spirit of freedom resulted in the Declaration of Independence, severing the ties which bound us to England, will be told in the life of Jefferson.

We ought now to study the form of government under which the war for independence was fought. The directing power was the Continental Congress, consisting of delegates from each of the colonies. This was merely an advisory body, whom the people trusted and generally obeyed as long as there was an enemy to fight. So this Congress raised armies, elected commanding generals, and waged war, by common consent.

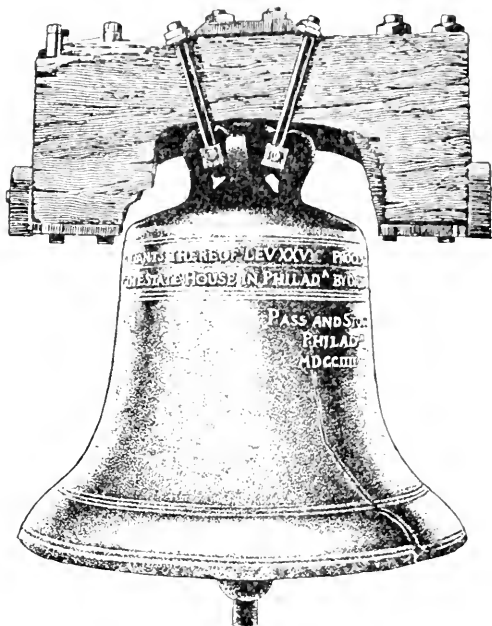
It also sought to form a loose union of the colonies, and so drafted, in 1777, an agreement known as the Articles of Confederation. By this instrument, a general government was created, consisting only of a lawmaking department with such powers as the Congress was already exercising, but with no executive officers to enforce its laws and with no system of courts to interpret them. The Articles of Confederation were finally adopted in 1781 by the consent of all the colonies, which were now states, since all of them had formed independent governments. It must be kept clearly in mind that

none of these states surrendered any of their sovereign powers when they entered the Confederation. They simply joined together in a league of friendship for common defense. During the actual progress of the war the people did not fully realize how weak and inadequate was this form of government.

After its close, the need of united action was less apparent, though none the less real. The Articles of Confederation gave Congress the power to regulate commerce and to collect revenue through port duties. It could issue paper money, and it did so as fast as the printing presses could turn the currency out, but the actual value of the money so issued became smaller and smaller each year. When it needed funds for its maintenance, Congress could levy upon each state its share of the expenses, but it had no power to enforce the collection of these levies. It had great difficulty in persuading them to give money, and it had practically no other way to get funds. So the general government came to be more and more distrusted, while the state governments increased in power and influence. This led to serious disputes between states in matters of trade and commerce. Each state, exercising the right to levy such duties as it saw fit, built up a system of revenue duties for its own benefit, at the expense of its neighbors. Thus, New York taxed firewood brought within its borders from Connecticut and dairy products from New Jersey, and the latter state in retaliation imposed a tax of \$1800 upon a lighthouse belonging to New York but situated on the Jersey shore. The spirit of unity, which had drawn the people together, was fast disappearing. The war had exhausted the resources of the people, taxes were heavy, and the purchase of manufactured goods from abroad had drained the country of its hard money, for foreign nations demanded gold and silver in payment for the goods they sold us.

It was a critical period. Men began to feel that the liberty, for which they had fought and had sacrificed so much, would be lost. Thomas Paine, a famous writer of the Revolution, in the last number of his paper, "The Crisis," issued when the war was ended, had said that the times that tried men's souls had passed — little realizing that there still remained for the American people a task fully as great as that of winning their independence.

But before we tell the story of how nobly this was accomplished through the wisdom of our fathers in framing our Constitution, let us consider the greatest legislative act passed by Congress under the Articles of Confederation. By the treaty of 1783, all that rich and fertile country north of the Ohio, east of the Mississippi, and south of the Great Lakes had been surrendered by England to the states. Four of these states claimed a portion of this vast territory; Massachusetts and Connecticut basing their claims upon the provisions of their charters, New York upon a treaty with the Iroquois Indians, and Virginia upon its original charter of 1609 and upon the military expedition of George Rogers Clark in the Revolution. It was felt, however, that inasmuch as this region was one of the fruits



The Famous Liberty Bell
(Hung in the Pennsylvania State House,
Philadelphia)

of our victory over England, all of the states had an interest in it. Finally, the states claiming ownership by virtue of charter rights or otherwise, consented to cede their claims to the general government, and in 1787 the Northwest Territory was formed. The act organizing a territorial form of government was called the Ordinance of 1787 and has been a model for the governments of almost all of the territories created since that time. It provided for freedom of religion, for civil liberty, for the encouragement of education, and forbade the establishment of slavery within its borders. This wise legislation is one of the greatest acts in American history.

We come now to the story of the peaceful struggle through which the dangers of this critical period were averted and a stronger government was formed.

It was a contest of ideas and not of arms, and the men who waged it successfully are entitled to the respect of all true Americans. The weakness of the confederated government led to the calling of a convention to remedy its defects. This convention met in Philadelphia in 1787, and among its members were many leaders of the people, men who had become famous during the Revolution. Among these were Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, and Madison. Not all the great men of the nation were present. John Adams and Jefferson were representing us abroad. John Jay was our Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry were not in sympathy with the purpose for which the convention was called. Nevertheless, twelve of the states sent to the convention their ablest available men.

Its meetings were held in Philadelphia with Washington as the presiding officer, and the members soon decided to cast aside the Articles of Confederation and to strike directly at the root of the difficulty by drafting a new Constitution.

Difficulties quickly arose among the members of the convention. There were disagreements about many things, but these were gradually smoothed over. Let us see how the Constitution as finally agreed upon remedied the defective government which existed under the Articles of Confederation. First: It provided for three departments of government, a legislative or lawmaking division, an executive or law enforcing power, and a judicial or law interpreting department.

Second: It gave to the new government the power to regulate commerce, to coin money, to levy and collect taxes, to wage war, and to provide for the common defense.

Third: Such powers as were expressly granted it were denied to the states, thus making it, and not the states, supreme.

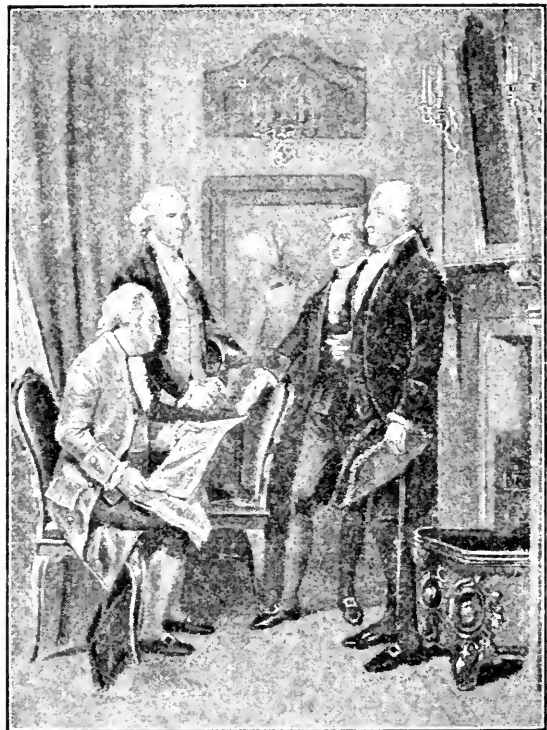
Fourth: It operated upon individuals and not upon states. Henceforth a man's first duty was to the nation and not to the state in which he lived. This did not mean that the states had no authority: within their own borders they were supreme, subject only to the laws of the nation.

Thus by this Constitution, which Gladstone has called "the most wonderful document ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man," a new nation was created by the inseparable union of sovereign states, each giving up for the common good those powers of government which affected all.

The work of the constitutional convention was submitted to conventions in each of the states and was in time ratified by all. As soon as nine of the states had so ratified it, steps were taken to organize the new government. Washington was elected President, and John Adams Vice President. We have told, in the life of the former, the story of his inaugura-

tion at New York; and in the lives of Jefferson and Hamilton we shall see how the difficulties which confronted the new government were met.

Washington selected as members of his cabinet — or advisory board — wise and



Members of the First Cabinet

patriotic men. Besides Jefferson, who was made Secretary of State, and Hamilton, who was made Secretary of the Treasury, Washington chose Edmund Randolph of Virginia as Attorney-General, and Henry Knox, a brave revolutionary general, as Secretary of War.

A judicial department was also created at once, and the man chosen as its Chief

Justice was John Jay, one of New York's most distinguished citizens, a man of spotless integrity and of lofty ideals.

With these men of ability and of patriotic spirit as leaders, the government of the United States began its work. Let us turn now to the lives of Jefferson and of Hamilton in order that we may see how the young Republic took its place in the world, winning the respect of other nations and the confidence and affection of its own people.

THOMAS JEFFERSON

IN the early days of Virginia there came to that colony, from Wales, a family named Jefferson.

The most famous descendant of this family was the great statesman, Thomas Jefferson. He was born at Shadwell, near Charlottesville, Virginia, April 13, 1743. His father was a prosperous planter, owning an estate of 2000 acres, and his mother was a member of the famous Randolph family. The little boy was carefully trained by his parents. Although books were not plentiful in the colony, they had a good library, and Thomas soon learned to enjoy it. Like Washington, young Jefferson also was fond of outdoor sports. He was a keen hunter and a skillful horseman. When nine years of age, he was sent to board with a minister in the neighborhood, where he studied Greek, Latin, and French. His father guided his education and saw that he was also thoroughly taught arithmetic and bookkeeping. Thomas was fond of music and became a good violin player. For several years, it is said, he used to practice three hours a day. His father died when his son was but fourteen, leaving to Thomas the family estate at Shadwell. Young Jefferson was ready for college at seventeen, and entered William and Mary College in Williamsburg in 1760.

He was a thin, slender boy, somewhat tall for his age, but his mind had grown as rapidly as his body, and he soon became a leader in his classes. Doubtless his studious nature, his habits of industry, and his fondness for good books, all of

which had marked him as an unusual child, had as much to do with his attaining high rank in college as did the natural keenness of intellect which he possessed. One of the professors was especially attracted to the brilliant young student and took great pride in guiding his work. Thomas found time also to enter into the social life of the little college town, and found many helpful acquaintances among the leading families there. After two years of college life, he began, in 1763, the study of law. The next year he became of age, and to celebrate that event he planted a beautiful avenue of trees near his home. Some of these trees are still standing.

Among his friends at this time was a young lawyer named Patrick Henry. Their holidays were often spent together, and they were close companions. In 1765, Henry was elected to the House of Burgesses then meeting at Williamsburg, and Jefferson heard his friend make before that body the famous speech against the Stamp Act. You have read in the life of Patrick Henry the story of this wonderful appeal for justice.

Soon after this, Jefferson commenced the practice of law, and was successful in his profession. In 1769 he became a member of the House of Burgesses, and served almost continuously until the Revolution. At this period of his life, he found time to look after the affairs of his estate, and was quite as proud of being a prosperous farmer as he was of being a successful professional man. He cultivated his farms carefully, and experimented in raising all the trees and shrubs that would stand the Virginia climate. He rebuilt the old homestead and called it Monticello. Here in the winter of 1772 Jefferson brought his young bride, and here, whenever freed from the cares of public life, he retired for rest and recreation. The memories of many happy

days cluster around the home life of Jefferson at Monticello.

In 1775 a convention was held in Richmond to elect delegates to the Continental Congress. Jefferson and Henry were both members of this convention, and again the former had an opportunity to hear his friend plead for the cause of freedom in the stirring speech which closed with the words, "I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."



"Monticello," the Home of Jefferson

It was not long before Jefferson was called to serve his country in a wider field. When Washington was made commander in chief of the army, his place in the Continental Congress was taken by Jefferson, who became at once a prominent and useful member of that body.

The Americans were beginning to realize that the war upon which they had entered, was brought about largely through the stubbornness of King George III. Their appeals to him had been treated with contempt. He had shown in every way possible that he intended to rule the colonies selfishly and absolutely. Jefferson expressed the sentiment of the American people forcibly when he said, "It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have such a king at such a time. We are told, and everything proves it true, that he is the bitterest enemy we have." It is not strange, therefore,

that Congress now determined to state to the world the reasons why the colonies thought it right to declare themselves independent. For this purpose, a committee was appointed in June of the year 1776. Although Jefferson was at that time one of the youngest members of Congress, his associates



Committee to draw up the Declaration of Independence

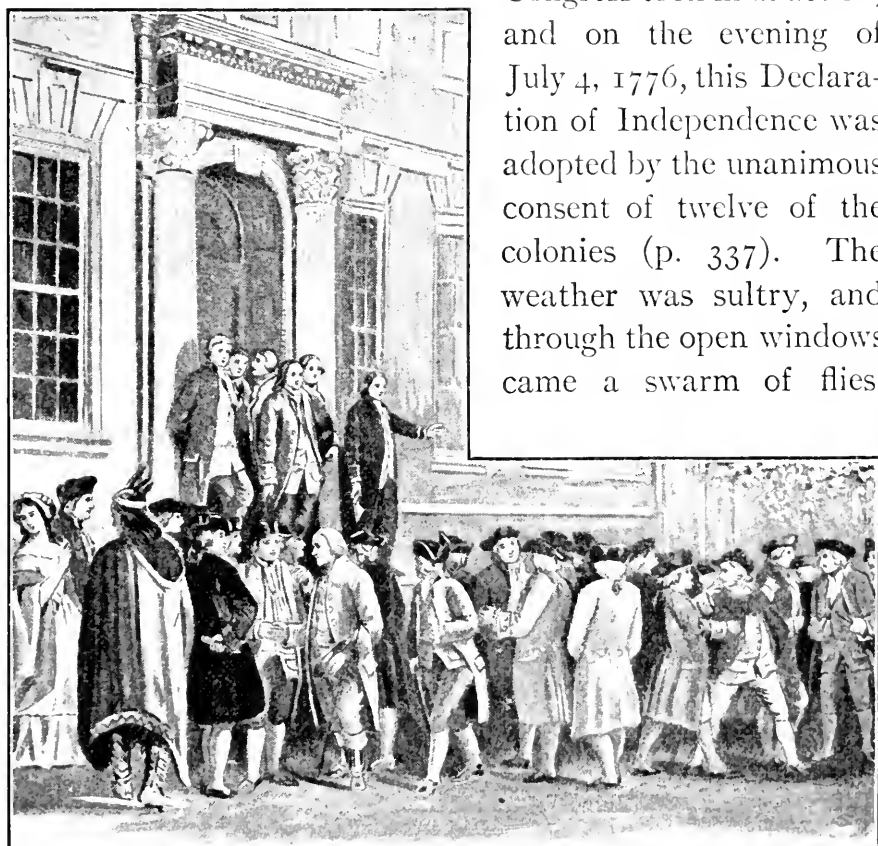
had such confidence in his ability that they made him chairman of this committee. The other members were Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, John Adams of Massachusetts, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and Robert R. Livingston of New York. At their request, Jefferson prepared a statement of their views regarding the harsh measures of the English king and his Parliament. So it was that he had the

honor of writing the Declaration of Independence. The original draft, in his handwriting, was presented to the committee, and some slight changes in its wording were made by Franklin and Adams. It was then ready for consideration by Congress.

The meetings of that body were held in Philadelphia in the Pennsylvania State House, a plain brick building stand-

ing on Chestnut Street. Here, during the first days of July, the proposed Declaration was warmly discussed. Not all the members were sure that the time had come to break the ties which bound them to the mother country. Finally, on the 2nd, a majority was convinced and a resolution was adopted briefly declaring the independence of the colonies. For two days more, Congress considered the form of Jefferson's Declaration. It modified the wording of some of the sentences and struck out his bitter denunciation of the king's attitude toward the slave trade. When these changes had been made,

Congress took final action, and on the evening of July 4, 1776, this Declaration of Independence was adopted by the unanimous consent of twelve of the colonies (p. 337). The weather was sultry, and through the open windows came a swarm of flies.



Announcing the Declaration of Independence

The gentlemen of that day dressed in knee breeches and silk stockings, and the flies must have annoyed them as they sat through the long debates. Possibly this may have hastened the decision of some of the delegates who had hesitated to take the final step.

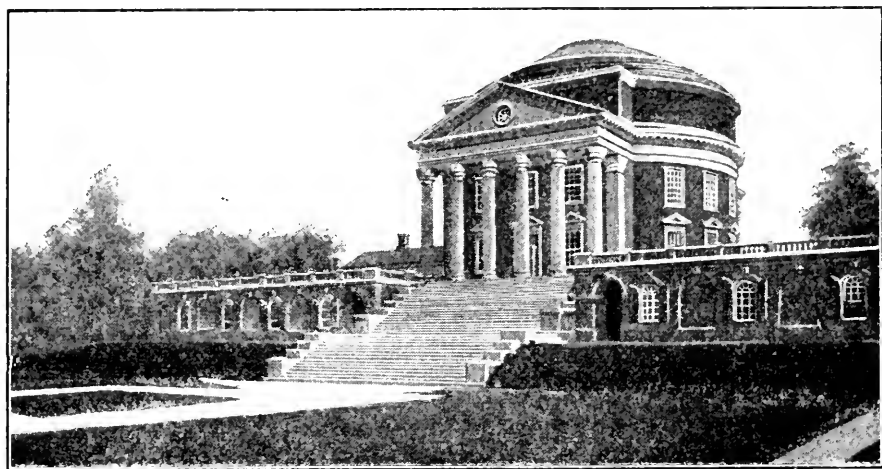
At once measures were taken to spread the glad news. Postriders were dispatched in haste to carry the news to all the colonies. The Declaration was read from the pulpits and to the army, and was everywhere received with great joy. In New York, the people in their enthusiasm pulled down a leaden statue of George III, which stood in Bowling Green Park, and melted it into bullets for the army. So, amid the ringing of bells, the cheers of the people, and the boom of cannon, a new nation was born. We celebrate its birthday each year on the 4th of July, for that is the day when Congress formally adopted the Declaration of Independence. The original copy was signed by John Hancock, the president of Congress, and by its Secretary. It then had to be engrossed on parchment, and when that was done all the members of Congress signed the great document. As Hancock wrote his name in a fine, large hand, he said, "There, John Bull may read my name without spectacles."

Jefferson declined a reelection to Congress in the fall of 1776, partly because of the illness of his wife and partly because his large estate in Virginia needed his personal care. He consented, however, to sit again in the Virginia legislature, because he was greatly interested in the repeal of some laws that he believed unjust. The Virginia colony, more than any of the other colonies, followed the customs and laws of England. Like the mother country, she had an Established Church which was supported by general taxation. Jefferson thought this was wrong, and secured the passage

of a law giving the people the right to worship in churches not supported by state or by local taxation.

At that time, also, by the laws of inheritance, a man's property at his death was given to his eldest son. This law was unfair to the other members of the family, and, largely through Jefferson's efforts, was repealed.

Throughout an active life he was greatly interested in the cause of education. While a member of the Virginia legislature, he advocated a system of general education by which



Library of the University of Virginia at Charlottesville

the people could understand and use rightly the blessings of the liberty for which they were fighting. Many years later, he outlined a plan for common schools, academies, and, to crown the system, a State University to be supported for the main part by the people. Although he did not succeed in getting Virginia to adopt the whole of the scheme, he succeeded in inducing the legislature to accept the gift of Central College, and so became the founder in 1818 of the University of Virginia, at Charlottesville.

In 1779, Jefferson was elected governor of Virginia, and

served for two years while that state was the seat of active warfare between the British and the Continental forces.

In the autumn of 1782 a great sorrow came to him. His wife, whom he loved devotedly, died; and Jefferson was heartbroken. He had several times been offered an appointment to represent the colonies at the court of France, but had refused because of his wife's delicate health. He was now willing to go, for he thought that in the change of scene his grief might be lessened. So, when appointed for a fourth time to a foreign mission, he accepted, and with his daughter Martha, whom he wished to have educated abroad, he set sail for Europe. There he was to aid Franklin and Adams in making treaties of commerce with the European nations. In 1785, he was appointed minister to France, succeeding Franklin. For four years he lived in Paris in a fine residence. He learned to love the French people, and was able, through his cordial relations with them, to render his country great service. He used to send to the American schools and colleges all the new books of Europe, and he interested himself in the arts and sciences in order that he might aid America. In 1789, while home on a visit, Jefferson was asked by President Washington to be Secretary of State of the government just established under the Constitution. Jefferson consented, and for the next few years was occupied with the affairs of that office.

He and Hamilton, who was Secretary of the Treasury, did not agree very well, and it required all of the President's patience and tact to keep peace in his official family. Hamilton was an aristocrat by birth and education. He constantly strove to strengthen the powers of the general government at the expense of the states. Jefferson, on the other hand, although equally well born, was democratic in his tastes. He trusted the people and believed in state rights.

He thought that a strong central government was too much like a monarchy. Consequently, the measures that Hamilton proposed and which we now know were necessary in order to establish firmly the credit of the United States at home and abroad, were opposed by Jefferson. But his long residence in Europe, his liberal education, and his ability as a statesman made him a valuable member of Washington's cabinet. He served for four years, and then returned to his home, Monticello.

In 1796 he was elected Vice President, and in 1800, President of the United States. His election to the latter office was the result of an exciting campaign. There was a tie between the leading candidates, Jefferson and Burr, so the choice was left to the lower house of Congress. Fortunately for the welfare of the country, Jefferson was chosen, and for eight years he made a most efficient President. The capital of the nation had been removed to Washington, and here he was quietly inaugurated. He disliked all pomp and ceremony, and conducted the affairs of his high office with the utmost simplicity. He dressed plainly, and allowed the people to show him no honor as President that they would not show him as a private citizen.

The most important event of his administration was the purchase of Louisiana, a vast territory lying between the Mississippi River on the east and the Rocky Mountains on the west, and extending from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada. This great domain belonged to France, and the French Emperor Napoleon had some thought of establishing a great seaport at New Orleans. Such a step Jefferson clearly saw would close the Mississippi to American commerce. Napoleon was, however, on the verge of a war with England and needed money. He offered to sell Louisiana to the United States,

and the offer was at once accepted. The purchase price was \$15,000,000, a little less than three cents an acre. Thus "at one stroke of the pen," as Jefferson said, the area of the United States was more than doubled.

The new territory was almost an unknown land, so, in 1804, the President sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark



The Lewis and Clark Expedition

to explore it as well as the Oregon country. Starting from the log village of St. Louis, they ascended the Missouri River to its source, spent the summer of 1805 in the Rocky Mountains, discovered the rivers which bear their names, and sailed down the Columbia River to the Pacific Ocean. After being away about three years, they returned to civilization and reported the results of their journey to Jefferson. This daring and romantic expedition gave us a broader conception of the vastness of our new possessions, and helped to establish our claims, in later days, to the Oregon country.

After he had finished his second term as President, Jefferson retired to his home in Virginia. For over forty years he had served his country almost constantly, and he hoped now to pass the declining years of his life in peace and quiet. His beautiful estate at Monticello was the center of generous hospitality. He had built up the finest private library in America, and here, among his books and surrounded by his friends, he was enabled to enjoy a well-earned rest. In his private life and in his habits he was a fine example of American manhood. His grandchildren, who lived with him, regarded him with love and veneration. After his retirement, many of his former political enemies, charmed by his hospitality, his great courtesy, and his sense of justice, became his warmest friends. For fifteen years longer the "Sage of Monticello," as he came to be called, lived, honored by a grateful nation. On the 4th of July, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, he died, mourned by the whole country. In his desk after his death was found a paper on which he had written the words he wished engraved on his monument. They were simply:

"Here was Buried
THOMAS JEFFERSON,
Author of
The Declaration of
American Independence,
of
the Statute of Virginia for
Religious Freedom;
and
Father of the
University of Virginia."

For these acts, and not for the high offices he had held with such honor, he wished to be remembered. The idea of freedom is the central thought of all three. By the first he aided in founding a new nation; by the second he gave to the people of Virginia the right to worship as they pleased; and by the third he opened the way for the youth of the land to obtain the greatest gift of freedom — a good education.

Free government, free faith, free thought, these were the noblest products of Jefferson's mind, and for these he will be longest remembered by mankind.

Topical Outline. — Early life and education of Jefferson. His marriage and home life at Monticello. Writing the Declaration of Independence; its adoption. Jefferson's public services for Virginia. His career as a statesman and as President. Jefferson as a private citizen.

For Written Work. — I. How did Jefferson's early training fit him for a useful public life? II. What influence do you think Patrick Henry's speeches had upon his friend Jefferson? III. Tell the story of the making and signing of the Declaration of Independence. IV. In what ways did Jefferson show his interest in education? V. Write a paragraph about Jefferson's life abroad. VI. Draw a map showing the Louisiana purchase, and on it trace Lewis and Clark's journey. VII. Why was the purchase important? VIII. Describe the home life of Jefferson.

Map Work. — Locate Charlottesville, Williamsburg (p. 92); the approximate boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase (p. 304).

Collateral Reading

History. — Cooke, "Stories of the Old Dominion," pp. 180-187; Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," pp. 172-175.

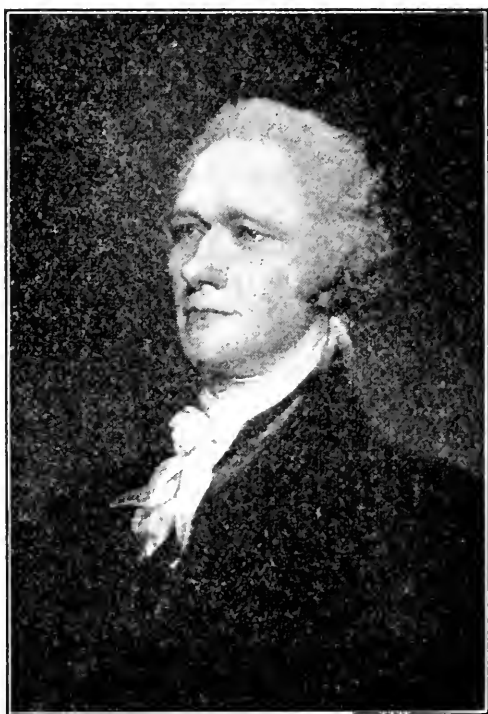
Biography. — Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 117-135; Merwin, "Thomas Jefferson."

Fiction. — Butterworth, "In the Days of Jefferson"; Johnston, "Lewis Rand"; Churchill, "The Crossing."

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

WASHINGTON is known in American history as the Father of his Country, and Alexander Hamilton may, with equal truth, be called the savior of its credit, for in his fertile brain originated the policies which placed the finances of the new nation upon a sound basis.

Hamilton's birthplace was on the island of Nevis, one of the West Indies. The date of his birth is commonly given as January 11, 1757, although writers of history are not agreed upon this point. From his father, a young Scotch merchant of the island, he inherited studious habits and an unusual capacity for hard work; while from his mother, an attractive and high-spirited French woman, came a vigorous and brilliant mind. By the death of his parents, Hamilton was, at an early age, left to the care of relatives. He was fortunate in having as his tutor and friend a Presbyterian minister named Hugh



Alexander Hamilton

Knox. This gifted man took great pride in guiding the alert mind of the boy. Hamilton had already learned from his mother to speak French readily, and with his tutor he studied Latin and the sciences, and read all the books he could get. The orphan boy's proud spirit chafed at the thought of being dependent upon others for support, and we next find him in the counting house of Mr. Nicholas Cruger, a wealthy merchant of one of the neighboring islands. Here he applied himself with such energy and intelligence to his duties, that it was not long before Mr. Cruger, when absent from the island, trusted him with complete control of the business. But the boy was not content with this life. He loved books passionately and was determined, at all costs, to get an education. Finally, friends yielded to his pleadings and arranged to send him to school in the American colonies.

The dearest desires of Hamilton's boyhood were realized when he entered a school at Elizabethtown, New Jersey, to fit himself for college. He had intended to enter Princeton, but its rules would not permit him to advance as rapidly as he wished, so in the latter part of the year 1773 he went instead to Kings College in the city of New York.

The spirit of resistance to the unjust demands of the mother country had already spread through the colonies. In New York, as elsewhere, the Patriots had formed military companies which they called Sons of Liberty. Public meetings were held in the parks, and liberty poles erected. One of these poles in New York had been cut down in 1770 by the British soldiers on guard in the city, and this led to a fight between the soldiers and the people. It has been called the battle of Golden Hill, but it was hardly a battle, since no one was killed and the excitement soon died down.

But the spirit of the colonists was again aroused when, in

1774, England tried to force them to buy taxed tea. In Boston, a party of Patriots disguised as Indians emptied the tea into the harbor; and in New York the captain of the British ship *Nancy* was not allowed to land his cargo, but he and his ship were sent back to England.

While these stirring events were happening in the city, Hamilton was busily engaged trying to do five years of college work in two. But a young man of his impetuous nature could not long remain neutral. He began to study the causes of the trouble between England and her American colonies. The more he read and heard about taxation without representation, and the other unjust laws England was trying to force the colonies to accept, the more certain he became that the Americans were justified in their resistance. He began to write letters to the papers, and pamphlets in which he clearly and forcefully defended the attitude of the colonies. These essays were so remarkable that people could scarcely believe they were written by a mere boy of eighteen. On one occasion, when a great mass meeting was held in the "Fields," now the City Hall Park, to arouse interest in the American cause, Hamilton was present. The speakers seemed to be afraid to express their feelings boldly, and there was little enthusiasm until the young college student pushed his way to the front and, mounting the platform, gave an eloquent and patriotic speech in behalf of liberty. From this time on, Hamilton was firmly committed to the cause of freedom.

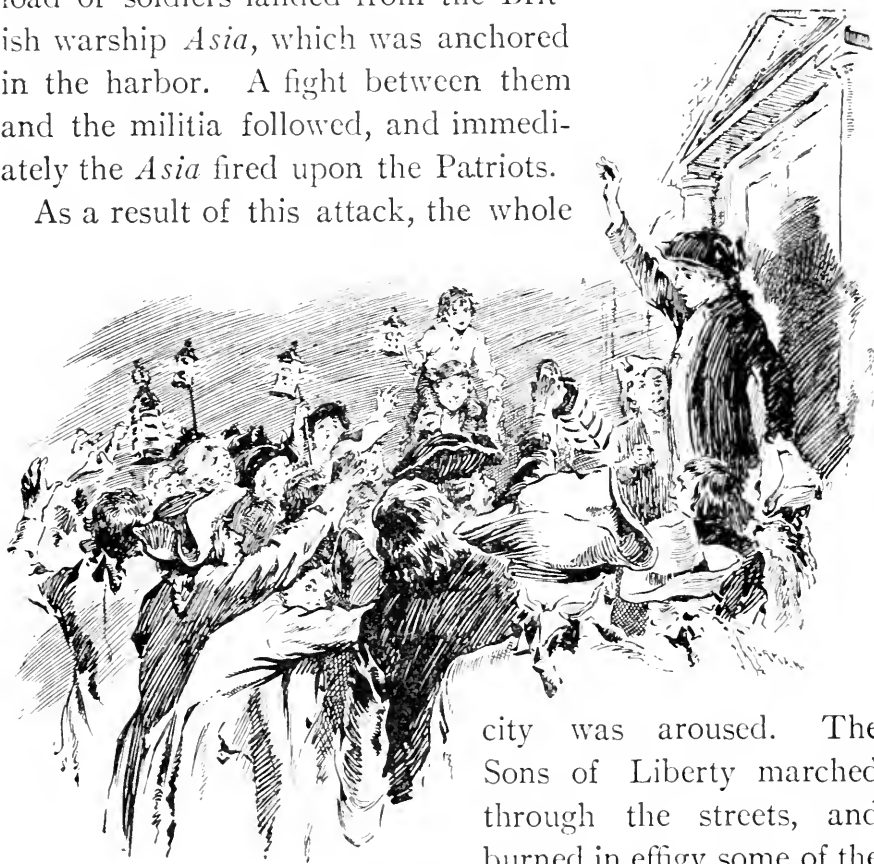
He organized among the college students a military company called the "Hearts of Oak." The members of the company wore green uniforms, and on each leathern cap was inscribed the motto, "Freedom or Death."

We may be sure that this patriotic activity on the part of the boys was not at all pleasing to Dr. Cooper, the President

of Kings College, who was strongly English in his sympathies.

It was not long before the "Hearts of Oak" had an opportunity to do something more than to drill and to parade. They were ordered to remove some cannon that were placed at the Battery. While they were doing this, a boat-load of soldiers landed from the British warship *Asia*, which was anchored in the harbor. A fight between them and the militia followed, and immediately the *Asia* fired upon the Patriots.

As a result of this attack, the whole



Hamilton speaks to the Mob

city was aroused. The Sons of Liberty marched through the streets, and burned in effigy some of the loyalists, or Tories, as they were called.

By nighttime, the crowd, having increased to a mob, suddenly determined to capture Dr. Cooper, who was one of the most hated among the loyalists. Marching to the college

buildings, they were about to force an entrance when Hamilton, appearing on the steps above them, spoke to the angry men until Dr. Cooper had escaped over a back fence and was safely on his way to the *Asia*.

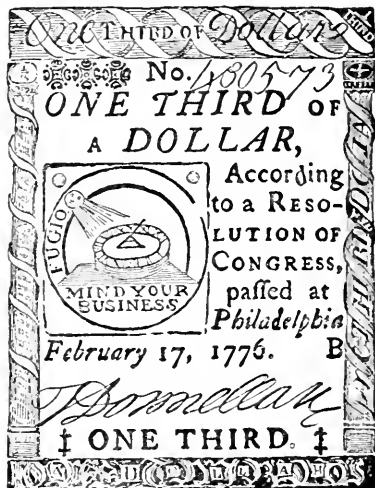
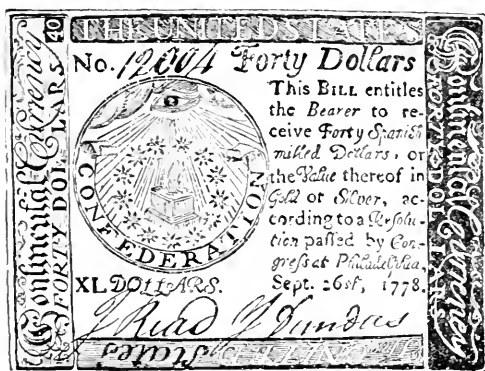
A company of artillery was now formed in New York city, and Hamilton, then only nineteen years of age, was given its command. With eager enthusiasm he gathered recruits and spent all his money on equipping his company. He soon had a body of men so well trained and disciplined that it attracted the attention of General Greene, and was immediately put at work. In the battle of Brooklyn Heights and at White Plains, Hamilton's artillery took part. The company also aided in protecting Washington's retreat through New Jersey, and did gallant service at Trenton and at Princeton.

During these dark days Washington came to know and trust the young artillery captain so well that he gave him an appointment as aid-de-camp on his staff. Hamilton now became Washington's private secretary.

In his new office, he had to carry messages to the Continental Congress, attend to the exchange of prisoners, and prepare Washington's written orders to the army. A warm friendship sprang up at this time between Hamilton and Lafayette. Both spoke French readily, and they passed many hours together during the dreary winter at Valley Forge. Hamilton was already known among the men of the army as the "little lion," but he must have been prouder of the affectionate way in which Washington often spoke of him as "my boy." On account of some slight misunderstanding, in which Hamilton was at fault, he resigned as Washington's secretary. But he did not retire from the army, for at Yorktown he commanded a corps of infantry and took part in the movements that led to Cornwallis's surrender there. In

1780 Hamilton had married Elizabeth Schuyler, the daughter of General Philip Schuyler, and when the war ended, he went to Albany, New York, with his family, and studied law. He was soon admitted to the bar, and commenced the practice of his profession.

There was plenty for a young lawyer to do. Times were bad after the war, the country was heavily in debt, many had lost their property, and business had



Continental Currency

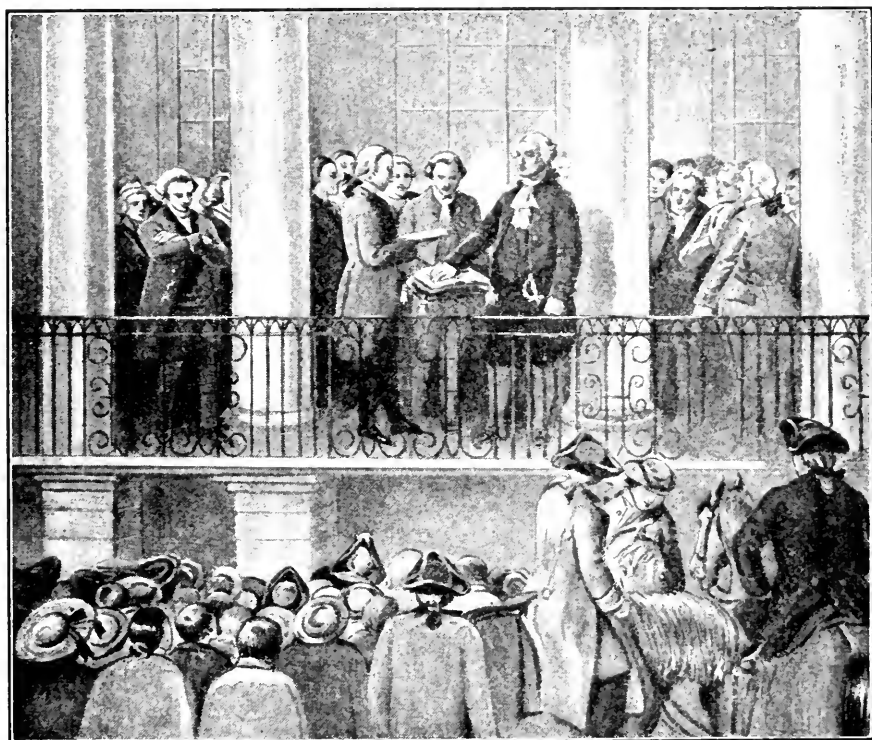
to be built up anew. To meet war expenses, Congress had issued paper money which was simply the government's promise to pay and was good only so long as the government's credit was good. This paper money became worth less and less until it was almost valueless. The phrase "not worth a Continental" originated then and showed what the people thought of the Continental currency. About the only "hard money," as gold and silver were called, in the country were foreign coins, and these were so worn and mutilated that their value was uncertain. The different states also issued paper money which was good only in the state in which it was issued. In fact, there were almost as many different kinds

of money as there were different states. But the chief cause of the trouble was, as many wise men clearly saw, that the states were too loosely banded together.

In the convention which met in Philadelphia in 1787, Hamilton was a delegate from New York and took an active part in the debates. At last, after a long summer's work, a Constitution providing for a stronger central government was drafted, and the labors of the convention were ended. It now became necessary to get the states to adopt the Constitution. Many people feared the proposed new form of government more than they did the weaknesses of the old. Nowhere was the opposition stronger than in New York. Hamilton worked night and day to win over this opposition. He made speeches and wrote letters to the papers explaining the different features of the Constitution. These letters, together with a few written by Madison and John Jay, are called the "Federalist" papers and are among the finest essays on the science of government ever written. At last the people were convinced, largely through Hamilton's able efforts, and New York became a member of the Union.

So the United States was formed, and the first President chosen was George Washington — the man whom the whole nation loved and honored. The capital of the new nation was located temporarily in the city of New York, and here for the first time the new Congress met. Washington had already been notified by special messengers of his election and had started from Mount Vernon. His journey to New York was marked by many expressions of respect. In Philadelphia the governor and state officials met him at the state line and escorted him into the city; at Trenton, girls strewed flowers in the path before him; and at Elizabethtown, where

he embarked, thirteen master pilots, dressed to represent the states, rowed him across to New York. The 30th of April, 1789, was the greatest day the old city had yet known. The buildings were decorated in honor of the coming of the nation's hero; the streets were filled with people in holi-



Washington taking the Oath of Office as President

day attire. In the forenoon, services were held in all the churches, and prayers were offered for the success of the new government. At noon, on the steps of Federal Hall, at the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, in the presence of Congress and a vast crowd of citizens, Washington took an oath to "faithfully execute the office of the President of the United States" and to defend the Constitution.

So amid the cheers and the prayers of the people the new government started. The most necessary thing to do now was to establish its good name and credit, at home and abroad. To accomplish this, Washington chose Alexander Hamilton as his first Secretary of the Treasury. Hamilton had no easy task before him. The country was heavily in debt, and there was no money in the Treasury. During the war, we had borrowed large sums of gold from France and Holland. Many of the Revolutionary soldiers were still unpaid, and we owed, also, for supplies furnished the army. These were honest debts, and must be paid if the new government expected to win the confidence of the world.

Hamilton began his duties with the same energy and the same keen intelligence that he had always shown in public affairs. He believed that the foreign and domestic debt should be paid in full, and that the money which the states had advanced during the Revolution should be returned to them. In order to do this, he succeeded in having Congress place a tariff on goods imported into the United States, and a tax on alcoholic liquors. These laws produced enough revenue to meet the expenses of the government and to pay in time our national debt.

He also established a banking system closely associated with the government. Now that the power to coin money had been taken from the states and given to the federal government, Congress, at Jefferson's suggestion, created a decimal system of currency, and Hamilton established a United States Mint where gold and silver and copper bullion could be coined into money.

The great orator, Daniel Webster, eloquently said of Hamilton's great public service as Secretary of the Treasury, that "He smote the rock of the national resources, and abundant

streams of revenue burst forth. He touched the dead corpse of public credit, and it sprang upon its feet."

In 1795, Hamilton retired from office and resumed the practice of law in the city of New York. He became the foremost lawyer in the city, and was the leading man of the Federalist party in the state, if not in the nation. His activity in his profession and in politics brought him into conflict



Hamilton mortally wounded by Burr

with the leaders of the opposite political party, the Republicans. One of the men whose enmity he aroused was Aaron Burr. Burr was prominent in public life, and held the office of Vice President in Jefferson's administration. He was an able man, but without a high sense of honor, so that people began to distrust him. In 1804, he was a candidate for the governorship of New York. Hamilton believed him to be unworthy of that high office, and worked against him so effectually that he was defeated. Smarting under this defeat, he determined to have revenge upon Hamilton, who he

thought was responsible for it. So he challenged Hamilton to a duel. The custom of dueling still existed to some extent, and Hamilton accepted, although he did not feel that such a method of settling quarrels was right. Hamilton could have refused to enter into this duel with Burr, but a false sense of honor and a fear that he would be regarded as a coward led him to accept the challenge.

They met at Weehawken, just across the river from New York, on the morning of July 11, 1804. Hamilton did not fire at his rival, but was mortally wounded at Burr's first shot. He died the next day, and a whole nation mourned the loss of its most brilliant statesman. Burr fled from the country, and a short time later was concerned in a treasonable plot against the United States. He was tried, acquitted, and lived to an old age, but he had forever lost the respect and confidence of his countrymen.

Topical Outline. — Hamilton's early life in the West Indies. School and college days in New York. Becomes interested in the American cause. Services in the army. Hamilton as a statesman and financier. Weaknesses of the confederation. His share in the adoption of a Constitution. His work in establishing the credit of the new nation. The duel between Hamilton and Burr.

For Written Work. — I. Write a brief sketch of the early life of Hamilton. II. Describe the meeting in the "Fields." III. What were Hamilton's most important services during the Revolution? IV. What were the weaknesses of the government under the Continental Congress, and how were they remedied? V. Who were the authors of the Federalist papers? VI. Tell the story of Washington's election and inauguration. VII. Are credit and a reputation for honesty any less necessary to a nation than to a business man? VIII. What was Hamilton's policy? IX. What were the traits of Hamilton's character you most admire? X. Was Hamilton or Jefferson the greater statesman? Give reasons for your answer.

Collateral Reading

History. — Blaisdell and Ball, "Hero Stories from American History," pp. 138-155.

Biography. — Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 49-63; Burton, "Four American Patriots," pp. 71-130; Sparks, "The Men Who Made the Nation," pp. 151-180.

Fiction. — Atherton, "The Conqueror"; Ogden, "Loyal Little Red Coat."



Hamilton's Tomb, New York City

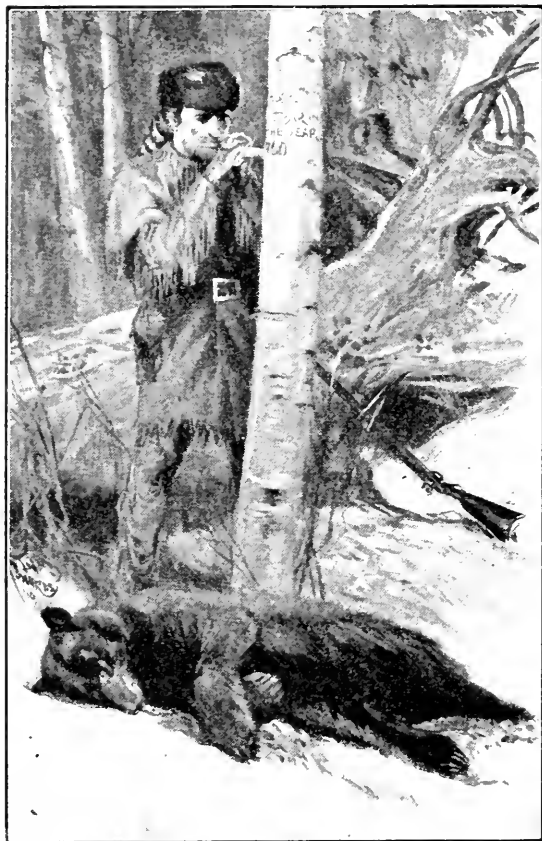
DANIEL BOONE AND WESTERN SETTLEMENTS

THE Allegheny Mountains were a barrier to settlements during the colonial days, so we find the Europeans scattered along the coast from Maine to Florida. But into the mountain regions of western Virginia and the Carolinas a hardy Scotch-Irish people had crept, and by the middle of the eighteenth century these people had become interested in the lands to the west. Occasionally, hunters and trappers told of the rich country, and some daring spirit started out to explore it.

One of the most interesting of these pioneer men of the west was Daniel Boone. He was born in Pennsylvania in 1734, but while he was still a boy his parents moved to the headwaters of the Yadkin River in North Carolina. In both states his home was in the frontier settlements and he had little opportunity for schooling. The life was so hard that boys had to go to work early, and few of them had time or opportunity to learn more than to read and write. When they grew older they learned the elements of surveying, for nearly every man at some time was called upon to use this knowledge.

Daniel Boone was an active boy and loved the woods. He soon came to know the haunts of the best game, and was a sure marksman. The bold, wild freedom of life in the wilderness tended to make these men very independent. As a settlement grew in size, the people were eager to push back into the new and unsettled regions.

Boone married at twenty, and, going some distance from his father's home, built his log house and cleared the land. He soon realized that the quiet life of a farmer did not satisfy him. He loved hunting and trapping much better.



Daniel Boone, the Hunter

Every trip into the mountains made him wish to keep on going instead of returning home. Some of these were long trips, for in the valley of Boone's creek (a branch of the Watauga River in eastern Tennessee) a birch tree is still standing that bears the inscription: "D. Boone cilled a bar in this tree in the year 1760." This is probably a fair example of his spelling.

In May, 1769, with four other men, Boone started on his first exploring trip to

Kentucky. This was known by the Indians as "No-Man's Land," for no one tribe of Indians claimed it, but it was the hunting range of several bands of both northern and southern tribes.

For five weeks these men toiled through the mountains. They had to blaze a trail, cut down trees and brush, and ford

streams, besides shooting game necessary for food. Early in June they reached the last slope on the Kentucky side of the mountains, and found a beautiful and fertile land full of game. The buffalo, bison, deer, bear, and elk, besides many smaller animals, were abundant. They selected a good place and built a camp; then they made exploring trips round about.

In December, while Boone and another man were on one of these expeditions, they were captured by the Indians. For a week they were carefully guarded, but one night after a great feast, Boone watched his chance, and, when the Indians were asleep, he and his friend escaped. When they reached their camp their three friends were not there, and they never knew what became of them.

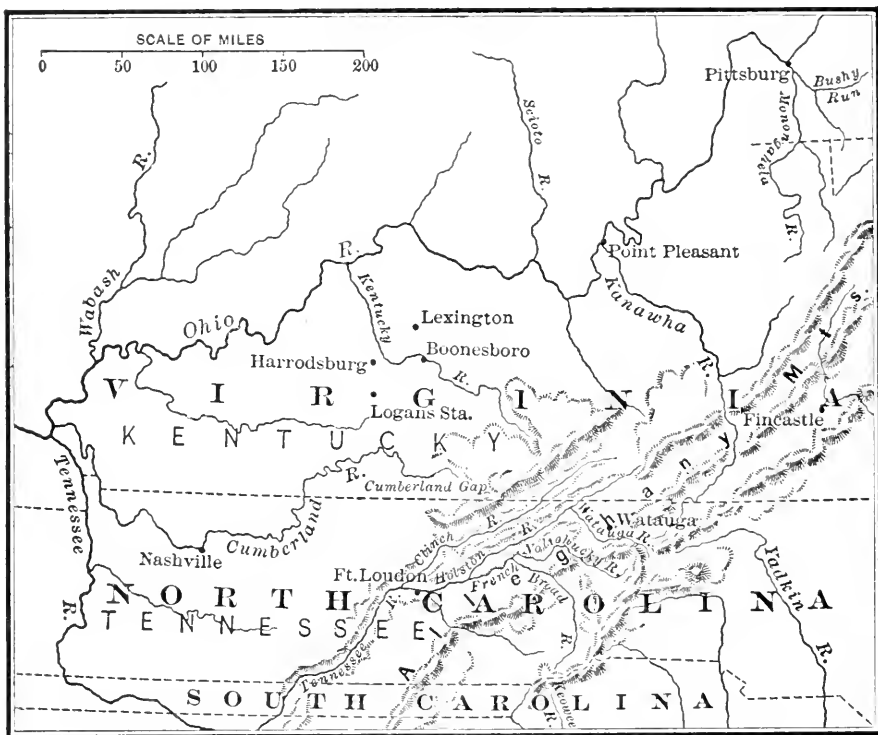
About this time, Daniel Boone's brother came from home. He was not a very good hunter, so after a few weeks he returned to the settlements for food supplies and ammunition. During his three months' absence, Daniel Boone remained at the camp all alone, for his friend Stewart had already been killed.

The brother returned early in the summer with several hunters. Boone says that they brought with them a copy of "Gulliver's Travels," and that they greatly enjoyed reading aloud to each other after their day's tramping was over. There are many streams and places in Kentucky to-day which were named by these men from characters in this book. After two years Boone knew the land well enough to bring settlers out, so in the spring of 1771 he returned to his home in North Carolina.

He is described as being a tall, slender, muscular man, with very keen eyes. He had a remarkable self-control and patience, and he apparently knew neither fear nor weariness. He understood men, and they naturally believed in him.

Hence he was a leader among men, for they knew his judgment was sound and his dealings fair.

In 1773 he sold his farm in North Carolina and took his wife and children over the mountains into Kentucky. With them went five other families and forty men. The men walked, some going ahead to clear the way, others remaining



Early Western Settlements

behind with rifles loaded for protection. The women and small children rode on horseback, while the larger children drove the cows. They carried little with them save food, cooking utensils, necessary clothing, and blankets. The road they cut led through the Cumberland Gap, a narrow break in the Allegheny Mountains.

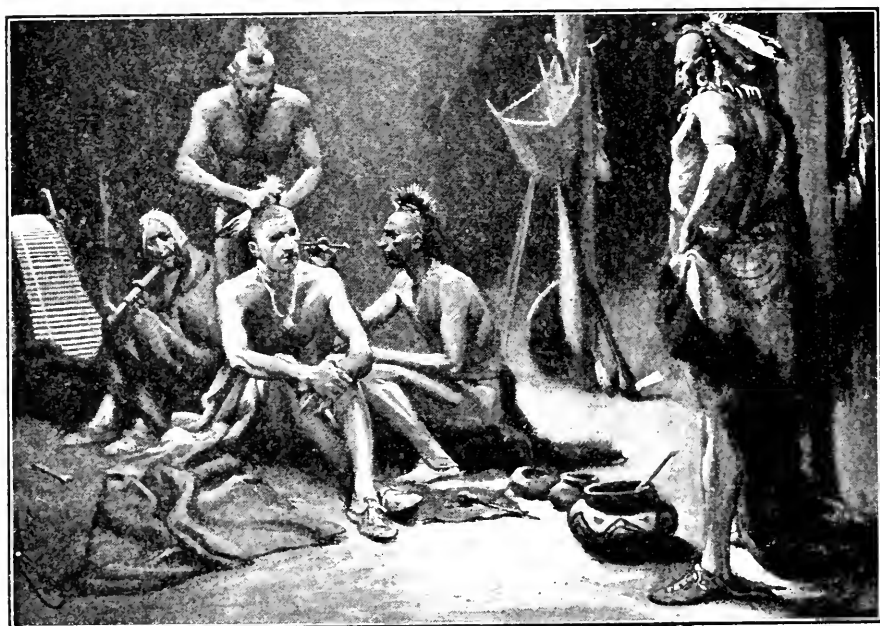
When they finally reached Kentucky, they were obliged not only to build their houses, but to make their furniture and provide for defense against Indian attacks. They built log cabins with huge outside chimneys, often made of the cobblestones picked up in the fields. They had no stoves, but the large fireplaces furnished warmth as well as a place for cooking. Chairs and tables were made from slabs split from logs. They had no iron nails nor hinges, but wooden pegs and strips of leather were good substitutes.

Boone built on the Kentucky River, within about thirty miles of the present site of Lexington, a remarkable fort called Boonesborough (or Boonesboro). This was an inclosure 250 feet long and 125 feet wide. At each corner was a two-story blockhouse, and along the sides were several log cabins. The gaps between the blockhouses and cabins were filled with heavy timbers thrust into the ground close together and bound tightly toward the top, thus completing the inclosure. There were no openings in the outside walls on the ground floor of the cabins and blockhouses, but above were loop-holes for rifles to stick through. The trees were cut down for a space of forty or fifty feet around the inclosure. In case of a threatened attack on their settlement, the people drove their cows and horses within the walled inclosure, and took shelter in the cabins.

Life in the wilderness was interesting but very serious. The Indians did not object to traders and casual visitors, but they disliked to have the white people settle on their hunting grounds. So they used all sorts of methods to break up the settlements. They burned or destroyed the crops, and killed the cows and horses. They would also imitate the call of animals, like the hooting of an owl or the gobble of the wild turkey, in order to lure the hunter farther into the woods

and then shoot him. The settlers learned to be always on their guard.

One day Boone's daughter and two other girls were captured by the Indians and carried off. Of course the girls were badly frightened, but they were careful to break twigs on the trees and bushes as they went along. The Indians noticed this and forbade their doing it any more. Then the girls slyly tore off little pieces of their dresses and dropped them along the way. This was not noticed by the Indians but served to guide Daniel Boone and seven other men a few



The Indians initiating Boone into their Tribe

hours later when they started out to find the girls. The rescuing party did not overtake them till the second morning, while the Indians and their captives were having breakfast. As soon as the Indians saw the white men they fled, leaving the girls unharmed.

During the Revolutionary War the Indians in that part of the country aided the English. Of course Boone and the other settlers were Patriots. One day in 1778 Boone and twenty-nine other men were captured and taken to the English headquarters at Detroit. The English offered \$500 for Boone, but the Indians had taken such a fancy to him that they refused the offer and carried him back to southern Illinois. They adopted him into their tribe, and to make him look like an Indian they pulled out his long hair, leaving a little tuft on top, which they decorated with feathers. They made him bathe in a stream to wash out the white blood, and then they painted him with fancy colors to suit their tribe. Boone was careful to do nothing to anger them. Although he submitted to this performance with good nature, he was constantly on the alert to find a chance to escape.

The Indians did not know that he understood their language, so they talked over their plans in his presence. After he had been with them two months, he heard them planning to attack Boonesborough. He then determined to escape to protect it and save his settlement and family. A morning or so later, just before sunrise, he slipped away. He fled straight through the woods toward home, and in four days he had traveled 160 miles. He said he took but one meal on the way. He immediately made the fort ready for attack, but the Indians did not come until some weeks later. Then three or four hundred besieged the fort for nine days, but finally gave it up and left. This was the last serious attack on the settlement.

Many old friends and neighbors of the pioneers from Virginia and North Carolina came and made their homes in Kentucky. Their sons and daughters married, and soon the central part of the state was well filled with prosper-

ous farmers. They organized and developed a good local government, and in 1792 Kentucky was admitted as a state.

Topical Outline. — Boyhood. Hard life on the frontier. First trip of two years to Kentucky. Settlement made. Boonesborough. Relations with the Indians.

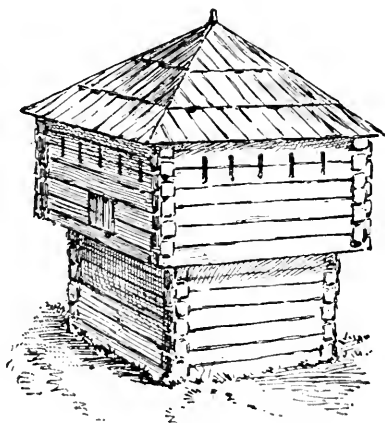
For Written Work. — I. Imagine you are Boone's daughter. Write your experiences as a captive. II. Take the side of the Indian and write your objections to the coming of the white men. III. Describe the fort at Boonesborough.

Map Work. — Locate North Carolina, Kentucky, Cumberland Gap, Boonesborough (Boonesboro), the Kentucky River, Lexington.

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Thwaites, "Daniel Boone"; Lindsley, "Daniel Boone"; Perry and Beebe, "Four American Pioneers," pp. 11-68; Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," pp. 102-116; McMurray, "Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley."

Fiction. — Bogart, "A Border Boy."



A Blockhouse

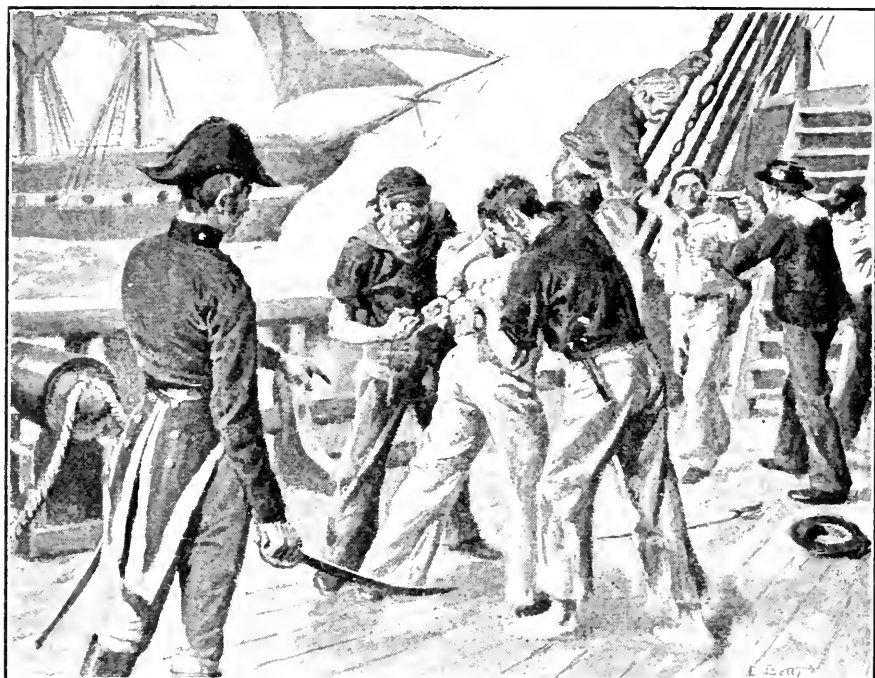
THE WAR OF 1812

FOR many years after the close of the American Revolution, England and France were at war. The United States remained neutral, and at first enjoyed a profitable trade with both countries. After a while, England declared a blockade of French ports and France blockaded English ports. But the merchants of the United States claimed that, as neutrals, they had a right to trade with both countries. In one year England seized 200 American ships on their way to French ports, and France seized as many bound for England. The people of the United States resented the conduct of England more than that of France because there were other reasons for bitterness.

Many English sailors, tired of war, deserted from the navy and found work on American merchant vessels. The English, claiming the right to look for deserters, often stopped and searched American ships. Many English sailors were found and compelled to return to service. More often, however, the searching officers could not tell an Englishman from an American, and took some born in America and others who had become naturalized citizens of the United States. In one year 1000 American sailors were in this way forced into the English navy. This became intolerable. One American ship not only refused to allow a search but fought the English ship that demanded the right.

The English occupied until 1796 the forts on the American side of the Great Lakes which they had agreed to aban-

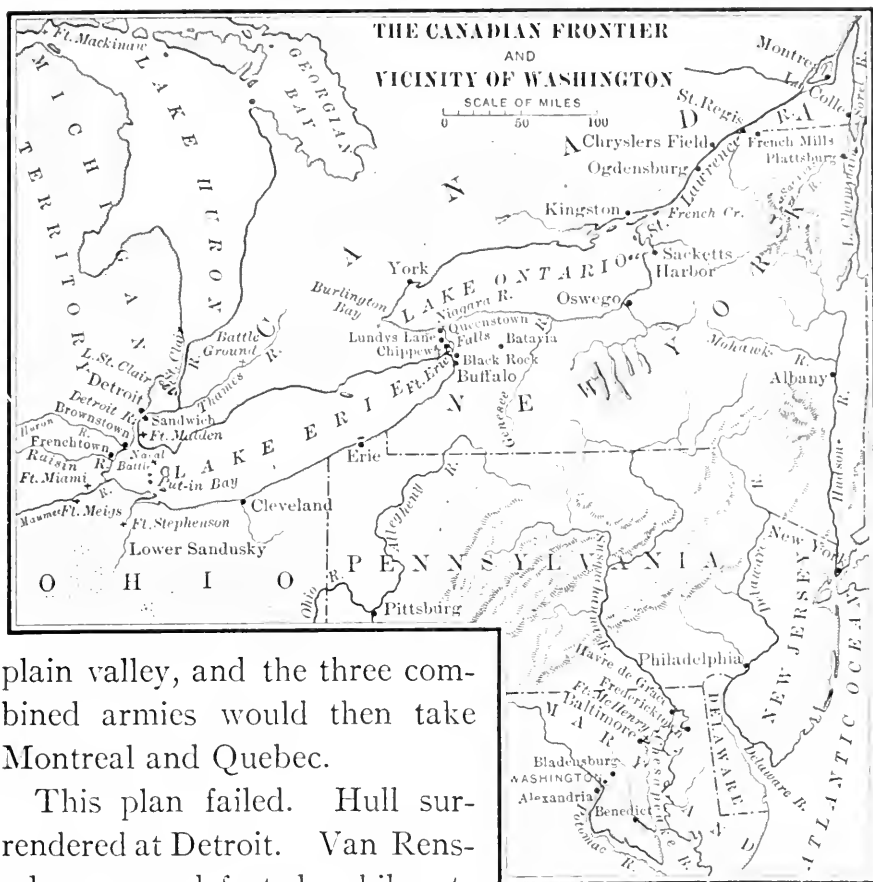
don at the close of the Revolutionary War. The settlers on the frontier also accused the English of stirring up the Indians against them. These troubles, and the impressment of sailors, continued for many years. Finally, in 1812, the United States, seeing that such difficulties and insults could



Impressment of American Sailors by the English

be settled in no other way, declared war against England. This war was fought along the Canadian border, along the Atlantic coast, and on the high seas.

The first plan outlined by the government was an invasion of Canada from several points. Hull with an army was to cross at Detroit and march east. Van Rensselaer was to cross the Niagara River and with Hull move toward Montreal. Dearborn was to enter Canada through the Cham-



plain valley, and the three combined armies would then take Montreal and Quebec.

This plan failed. Hull surrendered at Detroit. Van Rensselaer was defeated while attacking Queenstown. Dearborn did not even get across the boundary of Canada. But General William Henry Harrison, Commander of the Army of the West, saved the Ohio country by many victories over Canadians and Indians.

The war, however, was principally a naval war. When it began, England had available 1336 warships — 300 of the first class. The United States had thirteen warships, with only three of the first class. The English soldiers and marines were veterans, the Americans were volunteers. England was called "The Queen of the Northern Seas," because for two hundred years she had stood without an equal.

NAVAL HEROES OF THE WAR OF 1812 — OLIVER HAZARD
PERRY AND BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE

An English fleet was scattered along the Great Lakes to prevent the invasion of Canada. The Americans saw the need of getting boats on these lakes to break the power of the English. Early in 1813, the government ordered Oliver Hazard Perry to go to Lake Erie, build a fleet, and drive out the English. It looked like a big order for a young man of twenty-seven, but he did it.

Oliver Hazard Perry was born in South Kingston, R. I., August 23, 1785. His father was a naval officer of some prominence, and his mother was a woman of great ability and excellent character. It is said that she fitted her son to command others by teaching him to obey. She directed the boy's reading with great care. He went to the best private schools, where he excelled in mathematics and history. Later he was a private pupil of the famous Frenchman, Count Rochambeau.

He grew up with little love for the English. His father had served in the Revolution, had been taken prisoner, and had spent three months on the old Jersey prison ship. Young Oliver listened with keen interest to his father's experiences, and with flashing eye and clenched fist declared that he would some time punish the English.

At the age of fourteen, he entered the navy as a midshipman, and two years later served in the war against the pirates of the Barbary States. Several times he was on board ships that were stopped and searched. This not only made him wish to fight but made him familiar with methods of English warfare.

In 1811, Perry was put in command of the Newport flotilla

of gunboats waiting for war. For years he had given careful study to the best authorities on gunnery and naval tactics. While waiting for orders, he trained his crews, giving personal attention to all details. He knew all about the construction of ships as well as the arms and ammunition used on board. He often divided his fleet into squadrons and practiced sham battles. In these he applied and tested his book knowledge and worked out experiments for new methods of attack and defense.

When it was decided to build a fleet on Lake Erie he offered his services. He received his orders on February 17, 1813, and within twenty-four hours he had sent off fifty men. A few days later he started with his young brother Alexander and a hundred men. They had to drive in sleighs from Rhode Island to Lake Erie, where they arrived March 27. Ship carpenters were sent from Philadelphia, and a month passed before they arrived at the lake. Meanwhile Perry and his men had been cutting down trees and getting the timbers ready. All of this work of shipbuilding was very difficult because in that wilderness they had so few conveniences. They often had to make their own tools or wait weeks to send east for them.

By early summer nine vessels were built, only two of which could be called men-of-war. But all of them could carry a few guns. As war ships in those days were sailing vessels, the method of attack was to destroy the masts and rigging of the enemy's fleet. This was most easily done by firing shot, made of scraps of iron sewed up in leather bags. Bits of bolts, bars, nails, and, in fact, any pieces of old iron were collected and made up into these peculiar cartridges.

The English fleet consisted of six boats under the command of Captain Barclay, who had served with Nelson at

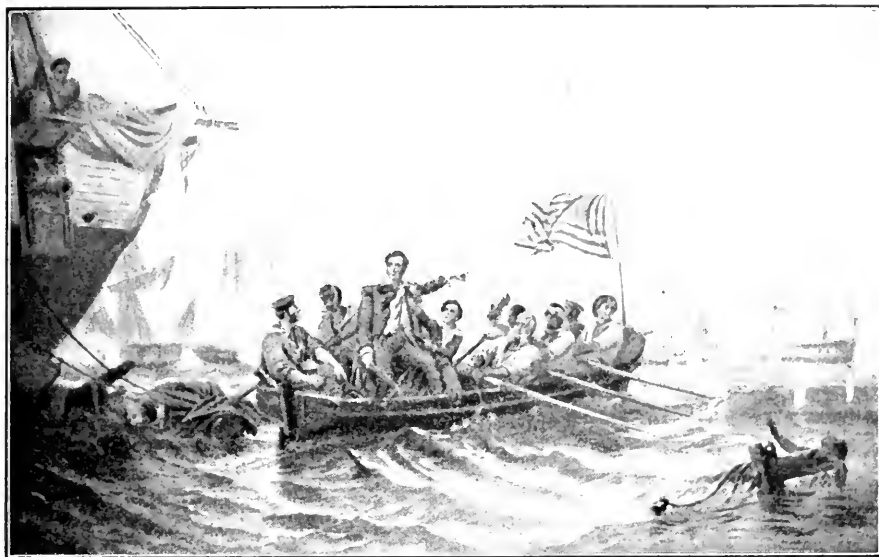
Trafalgar. The Americans had nine boats, but their commander was little more than a boy. Although we must acknowledge that the American force was stronger, it had greater obstacles to overcome.

Perry collected his boats at Put-in-Bay, and in the evening of September 9 he called his officers together and gave them written orders. He showed them his battle flag, a blue square with "Don't Give up the Ship"¹ in white letters, and said to them, "When this flag shall be hoisted at the main yard of the *Lawrence*, it shall be your signal for going into action."

At daylight the next morning, the English squadron was sighted. Perry started toward them, his flagship, the *Lawrence*, in the lead. The English boats lined up, with the *Detroit* a little ahead. The battle began about noon. For two hours it was principally a duel between the *Lawrence* and the *Detroit*. By two o'clock the rigging of the *Lawrence* was all shot away, her sails were cut to shreds, her spars were splintered and guns dismounted. Only one mast remained, and from it streamed the national flag and the blue banner. Most men would have given up and struck their flag, but not so with Perry.

His next best ship, the *Niagara*, was still unhurt. He took his flags, lowered a boat, and, with his brother and a few sailors, made for her. Captain Barclay, noting this, turned big and little guns on the small boat to prevent Perry from reaching the *Niagara*. Bullets whizzed about them; grape-shot struck the water, spattering the men until they were drenched; oars were shivered with cannonballs; but not a man was hurt. In fifteen minutes Perry was on the *Niagara*.

¹ The dying words of Captain Lawrence in the battle between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*. This flag is to-day in the Naval Academy at Annapolis.



Perry leaving his Flagship at the Battle of Lake Erie

He hoisted his flags and dashed through the enemy's line, and at three o'clock Captain Barclay struck his colors. Four English boats surrendered; two tried to escape, but were chased and brought back. The first and the second in command on the English vessels were killed or wounded, a proof of their desperate fighting.

This was the first time in England's history that she lost an entire squadron in a naval battle. This victory on Lake Erie gave the Americans command of the Great Lakes. But quite as important was the confidence in our navy, inspired by this success. Before the smoke had cleared away Perry wrote his famous message to General Harrison, who was in command of the army in Ohio near the lake — "We have met the enemy and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop.

"Yours with great respect and esteem,

"OLIVER HAZARD PERRY."

In recognition of his work Congress made him captain and presented him with a medal struck in honor of this victory. Captain Perry served on the lakes until the next spring, when he was transferred to the defense of the Atlantic coast. In 1815 he commanded one of the ships of Decatur's squadron in the Mediterranean Sea.

In June, 1819, he was sent against the West Indian privateers. While on this voyage he was stricken with yellow fever, and died on his thirty-fourth birthday, August 23, 1819.

Topical Outline. — Causes of the War of 1812: (a) England interfering with trade; (b) impressing American seamen. War declared. Comparative strength of two nations. Fleet on the lakes. Perry built an American fleet. Battle of Lake Erie. Gained control of the lakes by capturing the English fleet.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph to show the value to the Americans of controlling the lakes. II. Imagine you were the young brother, Alexander. Give your experiences during the battle.

Map Work. — Locate Lake Erie and Put-In-Bay.

Collateral Reading

History. — Beebe, "Four American Naval Heroes," pp. 75-130; Roosevelt, "Naval War of 1812," pp. 375-398.

Poetry. — Key, "Star Spangled Banner"; Holmes, "Old Ironsides"; Stevenson, "Poems of American History."

Fiction. — Barnes, "The Hero of Lake Erie"; Otis, "With Perry on Lake Erie."

MACDONOUGH AND THE BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN

Another important battle on the Canadian frontier was fought on Lake Champlain in September, 1814. The hero of this battle was a young man of twenty-eight, Macdonough by name. The Champlain valley had been the scene of many military engagements in the earlier wars. In the

French and Indian War both armies moved up and down that valley. In the Revolution, Burgoyne invaded the country by that route. Now, in the summer of 1814, an English army 11,000 strong under General Provost marched into the state along the west side of Lake Champlain. He was accompanied by an English fleet which had entered the lake by the Sorel or Richelieu River. The United States determined to destroy this fleet, knowing that Provost would not dare to advance far without its aid.

Thomas Macdonough, the hero of Champlain, was born in New Castle, Delaware, December 23, 1783. He entered the navy as a midshipman at sixteen and soon served with the Mediterranean fleet in the war with Tripoli. He was on board the *Philadelphia* when it was captured, but succeeded in escaping. He then served on the *Enterprise* under the great Commodore Decatur.



Thomas Macdonough

Young Macdonough was bright and quick-witted, picking up valuable knowledge with every experience. His good nature, his willingness to work, and his promptness to obey made him a great favorite with both officers and men. He was enthusiastic but never rash. He habitually made careful preparations before undertaking any piece of work. It was such characteristics that made him the choice for the important command on Lake Champlain.

The English entered New York state in August. An American army of 2000 held Plattsburg, on a bay at the mouth of the Saranac River. Macdonough got together a

small squadron and took up a position just at the entrance to the bay. The English fleet was stronger than the American, but was less fortunate in position during the battle, because of the prevailing winds on the lake.

At sunrise on September 11, the enemy came in sight. Macdonough at once called his officers about him, and, kneeling upon the quarter-deck, they prayed for wisdom and guidance in the work before them. Every man then went to his place and awaited orders. The English boats advanced fearlessly, while the Americans quietly watched them from their advantageous position at anchor. Suddenly, when the two fleets were about four hundred yards apart, and but a shot or two had been exchanged, a pet gamecock on Macdonough's flagship flew upon a cannon, clapped his wings and crowed lustily. The Americans cheered and went into the fight regarding this as a favorable omen.

The *Saratoga* and the English boat, *Confiance*, took the lead, but shortly every boat in each fleet was firing away the best it could. The *Saratoga* was so anchored that she could swing around, thus increasing the effectiveness of her guns. The English boats could not do this, but the *Confiance* had a furnace for heating red hot the shot to be fired. The injury from this hot shot was much lessened because the guns from which it was fired became loosened and their muzzles were so elevated that they often shot over the American boats, and the balls dropped hissing into the water.

The captain of the *Confiance* was killed early in the engagement. Macdonough worked like a common sailor, firing a big gun, besides keeping perfect command of his fleet and noting every act of the enemy. The battle lasted about two hours, and four of the English ships were in almost a sinking condition before the *Confiance* struck her flag. It was a

most stubbornly fought battle. The destruction on both sides was awful. The hull of the *Confiance* had 105 shot-holes, while the *Saratoga* was injured beyond repair.

Finally, every English flag was pulled down, and the Americans took possession of the *Confiance*. Then the English officers came to offer their swords to Macdonough, who



At Plattsburg, September 11, 1814

courteously replied: "Gentlemen, your gallant conduct makes you worthy to wear your weapons. Return them to their scabbards."

The result of this victory was immediately felt. The English army that was moving on Plattsburg turned about and hastily retreated to Canada. Thus the United States was saved from further trouble in this section.

Roosevelt says in his "War of 1812": "Macdonough in

this battle won a higher fame than any other commander in the war, British or American. He had a decidedly superior force to contend against, the officers and men on both sides being about on a par in every respect, and it was solely owing to his foresight and resource that we won the victory."

This was the last of the great battles on the Canadian frontier. The treaty of peace was signed the following December. The war had lasted two years. Besides these battles on the Canadian border, the city of Washington had been burned by the English, and many individual vessels had successfully engaged English war ships. The American frigate *Constitution* won many victories in these naval duels.

Throughout the war, the American navy did splendid work. Although decidedly inferior at the beginning of the war, it defeated the "Queen of the Northern Seas." Roosevelt says this remarkable success was due to the fact that our men were better marksmen, that our boats were more easily maneuvered and were not disturbed by the rough waters; whether balancing on the top of a wave or plowing in a trough, their shots took effect. And last of all the Americans were fighting for their rights; they fought hard and they won.

This war greatly strengthened the spirit of union between the states. The victorious navy belonged to the nation, not to any state or section. Men who had opposed building war ships could not help being proud of the naval victories.

It also won for the United States the respect of other nations. After that, vessels floating the American flag could sail the seas without interference. Thus the United States is said to have won her commercial independence.

Topical Outline. — Macdonough's boyhood; service under Decatur in Mediterranean. Champlain valley invaded by Burgoyne and again,

in 1814, by an army and fleet. Macdonough skillfully defeats English. Much credit due the navy.

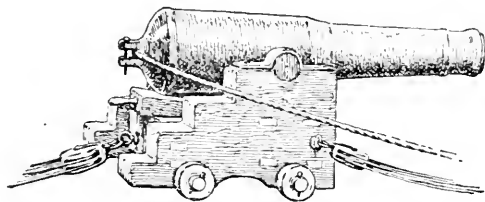
For Written Work. — Compare the work of Perry with that of Macdonough.

Map Work. — Locate Richelieu (Sorel) River, Lake Champlain, Plattsburg, Saranac River.

Collateral Reading

History. — Roosevelt, "Naval War of 1812," pp. 375-398; Williams, "Stories from Early New York History," pp. 259-264.

Fiction. — Otis, "With Porter on the Essex"; Seawell, "Decatur and Somers"; "Midshipman Paulding."



Cannon mounted for Navy

LAFAYETTE — A LOYAL FRIEND TO THE UNITED STATES

DURING the war for American independence several foreigners gave valuable aid to the colonies. Of these men probably Lafayette is the most gratefully remembered. This may be due to his rank and extreme youth when he came to help us, and to his delightful visit many years later.

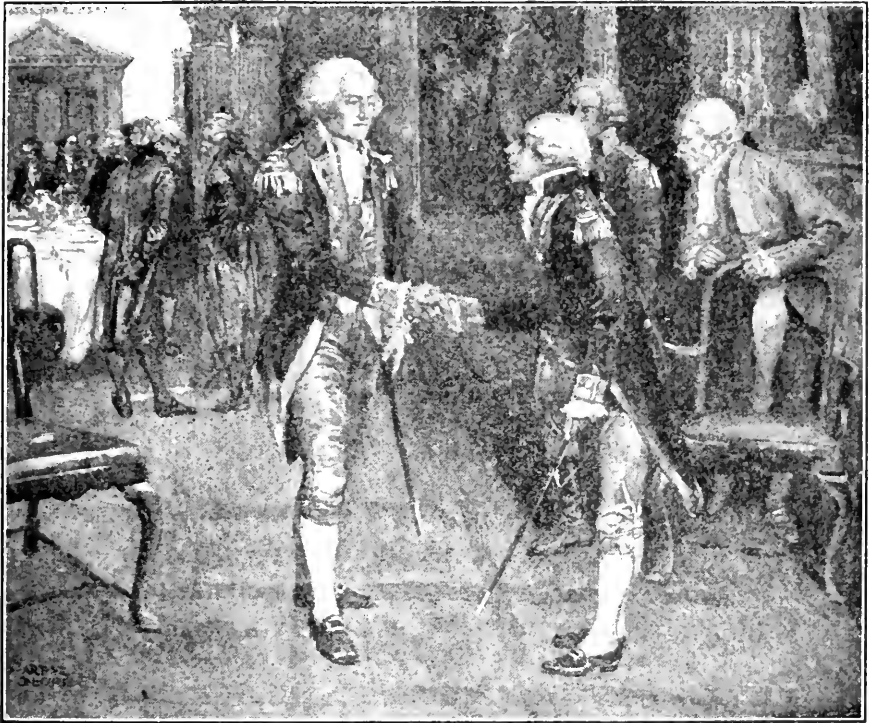
Lafayette was born September 6, 1757, in the old castle of his family in central France. He belonged to the highest rank of French nobility. At the age of thirteen he was left an orphan in full possession of valuable landed estates and with the title of marquis. While at college in Paris, he was received at the court of Louis XV. and became a great favorite with the king. He also served as a page in the royal household, and through the queen's influence received a military commission at the age of fifteen.

The marquis was a tall boy, and more mature than most of his age. His natural self-reliance was also fostered by his training and experience. At sixteen he married, and was stationed as captain of dragoons in the garrison at Metz, on the German border.

At a grand dinner party soon after the Declaration of Independence, Lafayette first heard of the struggle of the American colonists. He at once became interested in their cause and took opportunity to learn more about them. After hearing of Washington's brilliant victories at Trenton and Princeton, he decided to help the Americans in person. He

fitted out a vessel at his own expense, and in April, 1777, with Baron De Kalb and eleven other officers sailed for America.

On his arrival he formally offered his services to Congress, asking to serve as a volunteer and to pay his own expenses. The high rank of the young man and his generous offer made him very acceptable. The next day he was presented to



The First Meeting between Washington and Lafayette

Washington, who was so well pleased that he asked that this French marquis, not yet twenty years of age, be made a major general. From that time the two men were very warm friends.

Some weeks later, Lafayette was wounded at the battle of Brandywine. The following June he proved most helpful at the battle of Monmouth. A French alliance had been

made in February, 1778, but it was not until Lafayette's visit to France in 1779 that any help was sent. He then told his people what the colonists most needed. As a result, France loaned money, and later sent an army and a fleet to be subject to Washington's orders at all times.

In 1780 Lafayette was given command of troops for the defense of Virginia, and conducted a brilliant campaign against Cornwallis, who invaded that state in the summer



Surrender of Cornwallis

of 1781. At the siege of Yorktown his men did splendid work, and on the day of the capture of the town they closely followed Hamilton's men over the defenses.

This young Frenchman had been brought up in luxury. He had great wealth, a fine home, wife and children. He enjoyed the friendship of the royal family and of people of noble rank and culture. He had the best of prospects, but he gave up all at the age of nineteen to help, without pay, an

unknown people struggling against a powerful government. For five years he shared the privations of the American army. He even adopted the simple style of American dress, laying aside the splendid French uniform that he was entitled to wear. Such conduct merited the love of Washington and of the American people.

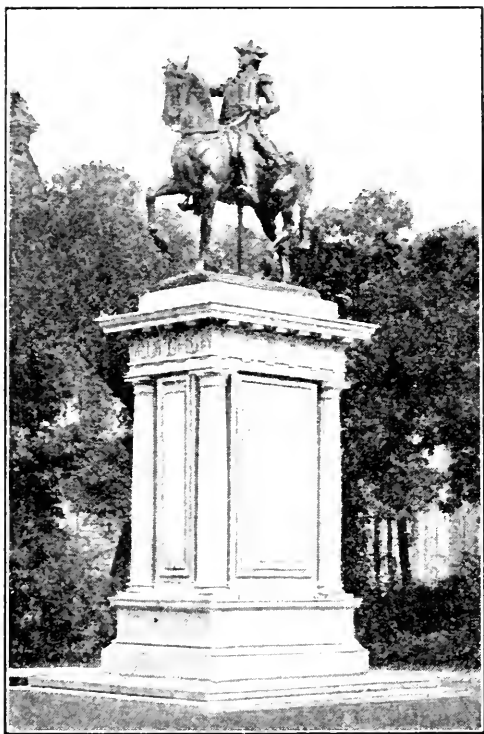
After the war he returned home, and was soon called upon to serve his own country through many years of revolution and war. When peace finally came he used his splendid ability to secure to France a constitutional government. For forty years he served France as soldier and statesman.

During all these years Lafayette kept a warm interest in the United States, and often spoke of visiting this country. In 1824 Congress requested President Monroe to invite him as a national guest. In July of that year, with his son George Washington Lafayette and other attendants, he sailed for New York. On August 16, 6000 citizens in gayly decked boats met him down the bay and escorted his vessel to its dock, amid the firing of salutes and the cheers of 200,000 people awaiting his arrival.

He visited each of the twenty-four states of the Union and everywhere was most enthusiastically received. He went first to the city of Washington, where he was received by President Monroe and welcomed as the nation's guest. He then visited Mount Vernon, where forty years before he had enjoyed the hospitality of General and Mrs. Washington. He visited Yorktown, and on the forty-third anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis there was a grand celebration, and Lafayette held a reception in Washington's old war tent.

During his tour of the states there was a great variety of celebrations. In some towns hundreds of little girls strewed

flowers in his path. At others he was met by school children who marched ahead singing a welcome as he entered the town. Reunions of surviving Revolutionary soldiers were held everywhere. At Buffalo he was greeted by the old Indian chief Red Jacket, who had served under his command. The old Indian said: "Alas! time has left my white brother red



Lafayette Statue presented by School Children to the French

cheeks and a head covered with hair; but for me — look!" and pulling off his cap showed that his head was bald. Lafayette then removed the wig covering his own baldness, much to the surprise and joy of the old chief.

Probably the most remarkable event was the gathering at Bunker Hill on the fiftieth anniversary of the battle. At the head of a procession of 7000 people marched 200 officers and soldiers of the Revolution, forty of whom fought on the field fifty years before. The Rev.

Joseph Thaxter, who was chaplain of Colonel Prescott's regiment on the day of the battle, offered prayer. Daniel Webster was the orator of the day, and Lafayette laid the corner stone of the monument that marks the place of the battle.

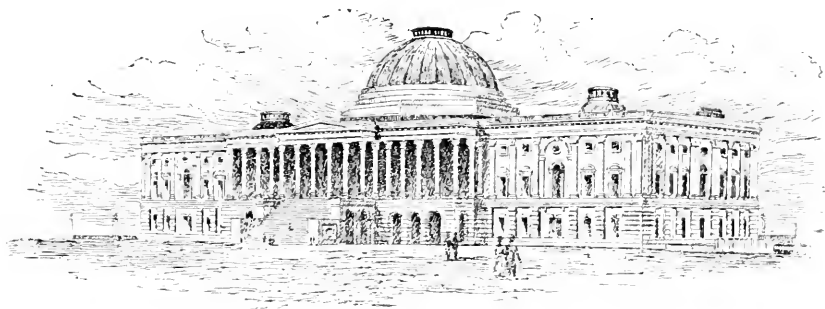
On his sixty-eighth birthday Lafayette sailed for home, happy in the expressions of a grateful people. He lived nine

years after this as a private citizen, spending most of the time at his country estate, a luxury made possible by a gift from the United States government, for during the long period of war in France he had lost all his ancestral estates.

On July 4, 1900, a statue of Lafayette, paid for by the school children of the United States, was unveiled in Paris and presented to the French people as a testimony of the appreciation of the present generation for the man who helped America in her great need.

Topical Outline. — Boyhood of the young marquis. Became an officer in the French army. Interest in American colonists aroused. Decided to help the cause. Served five years. For forty years in French service. Visited the United States in 1824-1825.

For Written Work. — I. Write a story describing Lafayette's visit to the United States in 1824. II. Why does Lafayette deserve our admiration?



The National Capitol as it was in 1825

ANDREW JACKSON — WAR HERO AND PRESIDENT

WHILE Lafayette was in America, probably the man most talked about, except himself, was Andrew Jackson. Jackson had been a presidential candidate in 1824 and, although not elected, was still a popular hero.

Andrew Jackson was born in the hill region of North Carolina very near the southwestern boundary, March 15, 1767. His parents were Scotch-Irish, and had lived in America but two years. His father died about the time of Andrew's birth, and his thrifty mother supported her three boys by spinning flax. Much of Andrew's childhood was spent at the home of an uncle who lived a few miles over the line of South Carolina.

Andy, as he was known, was a tall, slender boy, with red hair and freckled face. He was wild, mischievous, and quick-tempered. Although he had frequent quarrels with his boy friends, he was devotedly fond of his mother, and kind to all animals, particularly to dogs and horses. From early childhood he was a fearless rider, and later in life owned many fine horses.

His boyhood was spent in a frontier country, like that in which Daniel Boone grew up, where the schools were poor and of short duration. So in school Andy learned little save reading, writing, and arithmetic; but his senses were keenly alert and he early became well informed.

He was nine years old when the colonies declared their

independence. Rumors of war reached his home, but it was not until four years later that the hill country of the Carolinas was invaded by the English. The army of the enemy then swept through that neighborhood, and the thirteen-year-old Andrew saw his brother, cousins, and neighbors wounded and dying. The church was used as a hospital; there his mother went and nursed the sick and wounded. Andrew and his brother Robert waited on her and ran errands. They were in and out of the building, so could see what suffering resulted from war. The horror of it enraged the sensitive boy, and he was eager to play a man's part in fighting the enemy. The time soon came when even fourteen-year-old boys were useful in protecting homes and property against invaders.



Andrew refuses to obey the Officer

In one of the raids by the enemy, Andrew and his brother Robert were taken prisoners in the home of their cousin, Lieutenant Crawford. The English officers took what they wished in the house, and then one of them ordered Andrew to clean his mud-bespattered jackboots. Andrew replied,

"Sir, I am a prisoner of war and not your slave." Angered by the reply, the officer struck the boy with his sword, wounding him on the head and on one hand. The scars of both wounds remained until his death.

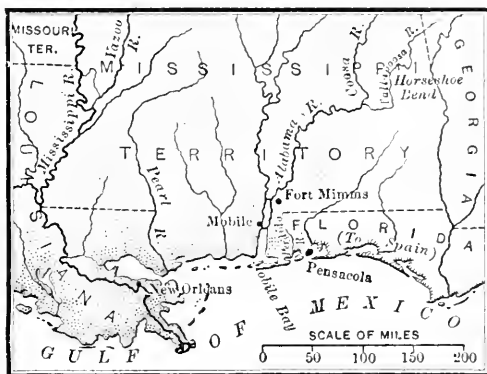
With twenty other prisoners, the Jackson boys were taken forty miles distant, and not allowed any food or a drop of water on the way. They were then thrust into a small inclosure with over 200 other prisoners. Smallpox soon broke out among them. Mrs. Jackson succeeded in securing the release of her boys, but not until both were sick. Robert lived only two days after reaching home, and Andrew was for many weeks very sick with smallpox. Before he recovered, his mother had died. So we find Andrew Jackson at the age of fifteen without father, mother, or brothers, much broken in health and very bitter toward the English as the cause of his sufferings.

At seventeen he began to study law, and was admitted to practice by the spring of 1787. He then joined a company of emigrants who were going over the mountains to settle in Tennessee. Lawyers were few in that new country. Young Jackson built up a large practice, and soon was the owner of hundreds of acres of land. It was not long before he was appointed United States District Attorney for that section, and he was fearless in the performance of his duty. In his efforts to maintain order among the frontiersmen and wild adventurers who had flocked to the new territory, Jackson sometimes had to fight to preserve the dignity of the law. The frontier life was rough. Disputes were settled quickly and often violently. Jackson was hot-tempered and a good shot. One of the many duels fought by him was in 1806, when he killed young Charles Dickinson. This quarrel grew out of both political and domestic conditions. Dickinson believed

that Jackson stood in his way to political preferment, and Jackson resented some slurs upon Mrs. Jackson made by Dickinson. The two men were well matched and both were wounded; but Jackson recovered, while his opponent bled to death.

Jackson served in the House of Representatives and was appointed to the United States Senate, but resigned, and when he was scarcely thirty-two years of age became judge of the highest court of Tennessee.

When the War of 1812 broke out, Jackson offered to raise and lead against the enemy an army of 2000 men, but for nearly two years his offer was not accepted. The last of August, 1813, a band of Creek Indians, aroused by the English, attacked Fort Mimms, in southern Alabama, and massacred between four and five hundred white people. The neighboring state of Tennessee promptly raised 3500 soldiers to be sent against the Creeks.



Creek War

Jackson was the choice for commander, but he was in bed, suffering from wounds received in a foolish quarrel two weeks before. When word reached him, he at once began to issue orders, and in three days he rose from his bed and started on the march to Alabama. When his physician was asked whether the general was able to go, he replied, "No other man would be able in his condition." But Jackson went, with his left arm in a sling and with hardly strength enough to sit on his horse.

Because of the poor facilities for transportation and the sparsely settled country through which the army marched, food for soldiers and horses was very difficult to get. For weeks before reaching the land of the Creeks, General Jackson's greatest problem was how to keep his men from starving. Hungry men are hard to control, and no less than four times did his troops break out in open mutiny. But at all times Jackson was equal to the emergency. This campaign against the Creek Indians lasted eight months, and resulted in the complete conquest of the savages.

In May, 1814, as a reward for this work, General Jackson was appointed major general and was given command of the United States forces in the south, with headquarters at Mobile. Florida was at this time a Spanish colony, and Spain was at peace with the United States. But that power was secretly in sympathy with England, and English troops made Pensacola, in Florida, a base of operations against Mobile. General Jackson, after having remonstrated in vain with the governor of Pensacola for affording shelter and protection to the enemies of the United States, marched against the place, stormed the town, and compelled the English to abandon Florida. After he had returned to his headquarters in Mobile, word came that the English, in order to control the Mississippi River, were moving to capture New Orleans.

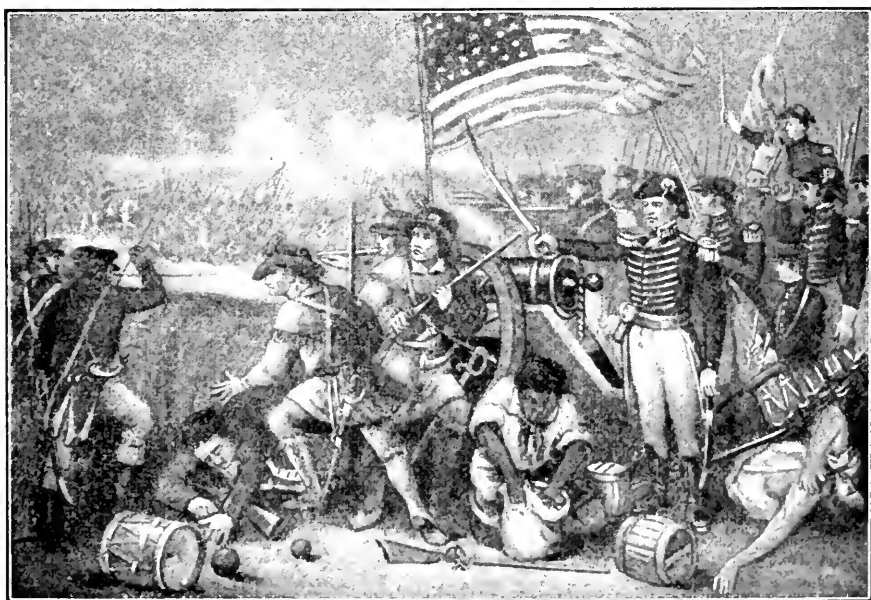
New Orleans was poorly prepared for defense against veteran English soldiers, so Jackson's problem was a difficult one. With great dispatch, he made himself familiar with the surrounding country, and decided to prevent the English from attacking the city itself. Early in the afternoon of December 23, he was told that the English army was within eight miles of the city. He at once summoned the aides,

saying: "Gentlemen, the British are below. We must fight them to-night." Messengers were sent ordering every division to its assigned position, and, three hours later, Jackson left the city to meet the enemy. The English were surprised on the road eight miles below New Orleans, and the fighting lasted half that night.

The next day, December 24, the treaty of peace was signed at Ghent in Belgium. But as there was no Atlantic cable, the official news did not reach Jackson till March 6, 1815. The greater part of the fighting near New Orleans took place after the two countries were supposed to be at peace.

The campaign lasted two weeks longer, and the great final battle was fought on January 8, when the brave English soldiers met a crushing defeat in attacking Jackson's line of entrenchments.

Jackson's victory is remarkable because the attacking



Battle of New Orleans

army was made up of splendidly trained English veterans under brave and experienced commanders, while many of the American soldiers had never seen a battle and all were poorly armed. Once at a critical moment 300 recruits came down the river to Jackson's camp, but not a man had a weapon, and there was not one to spare in the camp. Jackson made the best of what he had. His generalship was superb. When he knew he was too weak to attack the enemy, he held his ground doggedly and earned the title, "Old Hickory," that his soldiers loved to call him.

Three years later, Jackson commanded in another war with the Creek Indians, part of whom were in United States territory and a part in Florida. During the war, Jackson followed a band over the line, and finding they received aid from the Spanish settlements, he captured two towns. The government afterwards gave these towns back to Spain, but the raid helped the Spanish to decide to sell the territory, as it was becoming more and more difficult to defend. In 1819 Florida was purchased for \$5,000,000, and in 1821 Jackson was appointed the first governor.

General Jackson's home in Tennessee was a fine estate of 1100 acres with a spacious mansion, known as the Hermitage, near Nashville. He lived the life of the country gentleman, and eagerly returned to his home after any period of public service. He had no children, but adopted several. Two nephews of his wife grew up as his sons, one bearing the name Andrew Jackson. During the Creek wars a mother was found dead with a babe in her arms. The general took the child, found some one to care for it, and then sent it to the Hermitage, where it found a happy home.

In 1824 Jackson was nominated for the presidency.



The Hermitage

None of the four candidates that year received a majority of the 261 electoral votes, and the election went to the House of Representatives, by whom John Quincy Adams was made President. Jackson was hurt because of this selection, and the next four years were one continuous presidential campaign for him. He was elected with a big vote in 1828. A few weeks later, on December 22, his wife died very suddenly. His biographer says that he never recovered from this shock. He had always been a hot-tempered man, given to the use of strong language and having many quarrels which resulted in duels. He now became very much subdued; one of his friends declared, "twenty years older in a night."

Early in January, he started for Washington to assume the duties of President. The route was by steamboat down the Cumberland and up the Ohio to Pittsburg, then across

Pennsylvania to the capital. Everywhere he was enthusiastically received as a great hero and the friend of the people. He had always been a man of strong likes and dislikes. He also possessed the notion that a man who did not vote for him was his enemy. He confused political questions with personal feelings. So, when he became President, he promptly dismissed from office those who had not voted for him and appointed his friends, regardless of their fitness for the work. Thus he introduced what has been known as the "Spoils System."

After the War of 1812, a new tariff had been placed on imported goods as a protection to the small manufacturing establishments that had been started in the United States. In 1824, and again in 1828, the tariff was made higher than before. As the southern states did not manufacture but brought from Europe many things in exchange for their cotton, they paid a large proportion of the tariff. Much objection was made by the South. Finally, South Carolina, in 1832, adopted a Nullification Act which declared the tariff laws of the United States null and void in that state. Now President Jackson did not favor a high tariff, and many southern people expected his help. But at a Jefferson birthday banquet in 1830, he had surprised many of his friends by giving a toast of his own choosing, "The Federal Union: It must be preserved."

Jackson kept his word when the crisis came. As President, it was his duty to enforce the laws of Congress in all states alike. So when South Carolina tried to nullify the tariff law, he ordered General Scott to Charleston to enforce obedience. This fearless conduct of President Jackson preserved the Union. In a short time the tariff was reduced by Congress, but not abolished; it was collected in South Carolina as in other states.

In 1837 Jackson returned to his old home, the Hermitage, where he lived until 1845, dying at the age of seventy-eight. He was a remarkable man, a product of the humblest and poorest people in a wild and unsettled part of a new country, and owed little or nothing to education. He rose by his own efforts to the highest judicial position in his state, to the pinnacle of military power, and to the office of President of the United States. In each place he discharged his duties faithfully.

Topical Outline. — Born of poor Scotch-Irish parents. As a child he saw the terrors of war. Death of mother and brother. Studied law and went to Tennessee. Served in Congress and as judge of state supreme court. Served against Creek Indians. Commanded at battle of New Orleans. Became President. Spoils system. Prevented nullification.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph on what you consider Jackson's greatest work. Give your reasons in full. II. Why did people like Jackson so well, although he was so hot-tempered?

Map Work. — Locate Nashville, Pensacola, New Orleans.

Collateral Reading

History. — Parton, "General Jackson."

Biography. — Burton, "Four American Patriots," pp. 133-192; Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 162-172; Blaisdell and Ball, "Hero Stories from American History," pp. 185-198; Brown, "Andrew Jackson."

Fiction. — Stoddard, "The Errand Boy of Andrew Jackson."

HENRY CLAY, THE GREAT PEACEMAKER

IN the first half of the nineteenth century, there were three men prominent in American affairs. They were John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, and Henry Clay of Kentucky. Although none of them became President, they had a greater influence in guiding public opinion and in shaping the policies of their parties than the Presidents with whom they were associated.

The life story of Henry Clay is most interesting because it shows us how in this country a poor boy may, by his own energy and ability, rise to a position of great usefulness. Clay was born in Hanover County, Virginia, on the 12th of April, 1777. His father died when Henry was four years old, leaving a small farm and a large family to the care of his mother. Mrs. Clay struggled bravely to support her children, but she was able to give them only a limited education. About all the schooling Henry had was in the little log schoolhouse of the neighborhood. Like other boys on a farm, he had to help with the work at home. As soon as he was able to guide a plow, he helped with the plowing or the cultivating. Often in the early morning, he would go to mill on horseback with a bag of corn or wheat for a saddle, and bring back the flour for the family.

The district in which they lived was called the "Slashes," because of its low, marshy nature, and in after years Clay was known as "the Millboy of the Slashes."

When he was fourteen years old, Henry went to work in a store in the city of Richmond. He did his work there faithfully, and spent his leisure time in reading. About this time, Henry's mother remarried, and his stepfather, through influential friends, obtained a place for him as clerk in the court of chancery. A part of his duties was to copy the records of the court. The country boy was at first laughed at by the other clerks, for he wore homespun clothes and was shy and awkward. But he had a genial, sunny nature, and soon made friends with them. Moreover, his records were well kept, and his handwriting clear and careful. So, when the judge of the court wished a young man to write out and record his decisions, he selected Clay. This judge, who had the title of Chancellor, was George Wythe, one of Virginia's greatest lawyers and statesmen. He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence and a member of the convention which made the Constitution. It was in his office that Thomas Jefferson studied law.

So, you see, it was a stroke of good fortune for young Clay to come under the influence of this great man. Wythe liked the bright boy, and took an interest in his reading and studies. He advised Henry to study law, and loaned him books for that purpose. After four years as Wythe's secretary, Clay read law for a year and was admitted to the bar. During this time, he trained his memory and cultivated his voice by reading some good book, usually a history, and then trying to recite what he had just read. In the fields and forests, or sometimes in a barn, with only the cattle for listeners, as he tells us, he tried these speeches. He organized also among the young men of Richmond a debating club in which they probably settled to their own satisfaction all the burning questions of the day. In these simple and practical ways he

laid the foundation of his great skill as a public speaker and debater.

Having fitted himself as a lawyer, Clay now began to look about for a place in which to practice his profession. His parents had moved to Lexington, Kentucky, a few years before, so he decided to go there. Like many others, he felt that the West offered greater opportunities for an ambitious young man.

Lexington, at that time, was a rough pioneer town on the frontier. But descendants of some of the best families of Virginia had already settled there, and among these Clay found congenial spirits. He had the happy faculty of making friends readily, and he was soon one of the leading lawyers of the place. The story is told of an experience he had as a member of a debating club which he joined soon after coming to Lexington. He had attended several meetings, but had taken no part in the proceedings. One evening as the debate was about to be closed, he said to a friend that the subject did not seem to him to have been fully discussed. He was asked to speak, but when he arose was so embarrassed that he began, "Gentlemen of the Jury." The members of the club laughed at this mistake, and his embarrassment naturally increased. But quickly collecting his wits, he delivered an oration that his friends said afterwards was one of the best speeches of his life.

Much of his early practice was in criminal cases, where his sympathetic nature led him to take the side of the defense. Although he was not a deep student of law, he had the power of making people believe as he did, and was usually successful in pleading before a jury. He was as willing to take a case for a poor client as for a rich one. Indeed, throughout his life, his courtesy toward all classes was most marked.

At one time in later years, when he was riding with his young son, they met a negro who lifted his hat respectfully. Clay replied to the greeting, but his son did not. Noticing this, Clay turned to the boy and said, "My son, would you allow a slave to show greater courtesy than you do?"

Clay prospered so rapidly that he was able in 1799 to purchase an estate of about 600 acres on the outskirts of Lexington. He named the new home Ashland, and to it brought his young bride. Here they lived happily for more than fifty years, and here, after he became prominent in national affairs, Clay entertained his friends lavishly. A man of his marked ability could not long keep out of public life, so we soon hear of him in the Kentucky legislature. He served also for two short terms in the United States Senate.

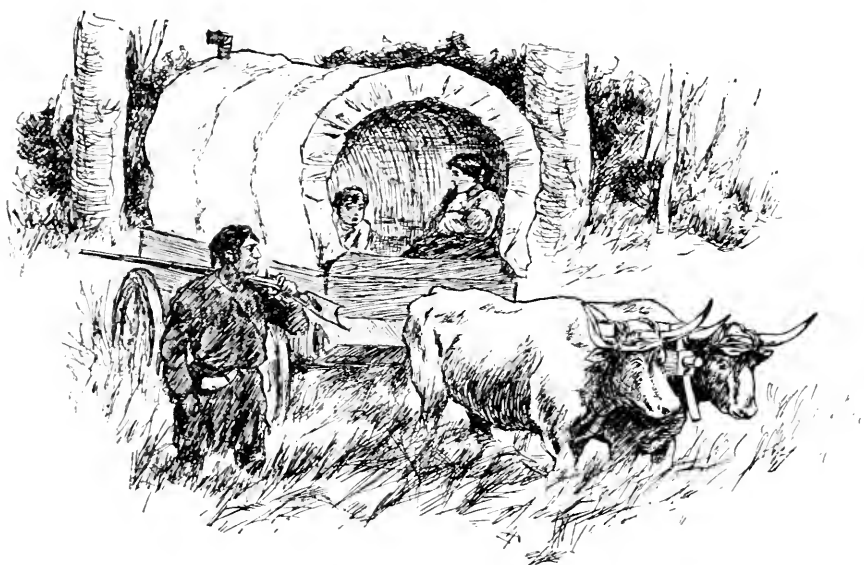
But it was not until 1811 that he really began his career as a national statesman. In that year he was elected to Congress from the Lexington district, and was chosen speaker of the House of Representatives. The country was on the verge of its second great war. England had interfered with our commerce. Under the pretense of searching for British subjects, she claimed the right to stop our merchant ships and take from them any sailors that were natives of Great Britain. Her motto was, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," while we believed that a man who came to our country had a right to become a citizen of the United States, and that he therefore ceased to be a citizen of the country from which he came. Clay was one of the leading men in demanding that the rights of Americans, and especially of American sailors, be respected, and it was largely through his influence that the War of 1812 was declared. How this war was fought and how gallantly our little navy swept the seas has been told elsewhere. It developed in us a national

spirit, and made us respected at home and abroad. Clay was sent to Europe as one of the commissioners to arrange a treaty of peace. The treaty was concluded December 24, 1814, and Clay, returning home, resumed his seat in Congress, in one house or the other of which he served almost continuously until his death.

After peace had been declared, an era of good feeling began in the United States. The Federalist party had opposed the war and as a result had lost its influence, so that the Republican party was the only influential factor in national affairs. During the war, our trade with foreign countries had been practically destroyed. As a result, we were obliged to manufacture our own goods, especially in the New England states, where great cotton and woolen mills were established. After the war, foreign-made goods began to flood our markets. This led to the passage by Congress of a tariff to protect American industries and to provide money for national improvements.

One of the marked movements of this period of our history was the rapid growth of the West. Emigrants from Europe and from the more easterly states were flowing over the Alleghenies in a constant stream into the fertile valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi. The population of Ohio, which was 45,000 in 1800, had increased to 580,000 in 1820. From the vast domain between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, the great and powerful states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Alabama were created during the years between 1803 and 1819. Western travel was mainly by flat-boats, where the rivers were navigable, or by wagons. The settler would put his household goods and family utensils in a wagon and travel into the new country until he found a favorable spot to locate. Here he would build a log cabin,

clear the land, and plant his crops. The wagons were curious sights, roofed over as they were with canvas, like a tent. They were called prairie schooners, and in some sections were also known as "Conestoga" wagons. It is said that in one year over twelve thousand of them came into Pittsburg heavily laden with freight and passengers. From New York and the East goods were brought up the Hudson in sloops, then taken by wagon to the falls of the

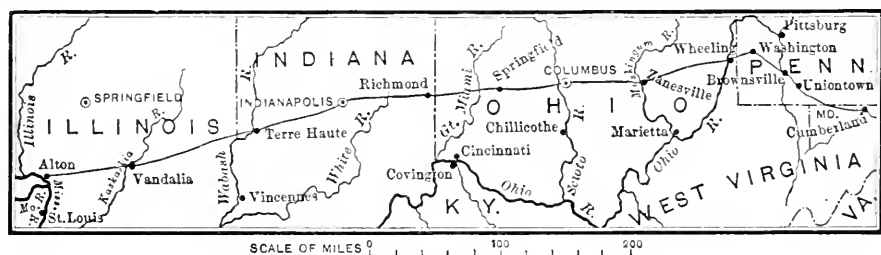


Emigrant's Wagon

Mohawk. Here they were loaded into "Schenectady boats" and poled up the Mohawk to Oneida Lake and Lake Ontario. Then by sloop to the falls of the Niagara, a short "carry" overland to Lake Erie, then by boat to Westfield on this lake, and by wagons to Chautauqua Lake. In this roundabout way, the cargo reached the headwaters of the Ohio, down whose broad surface it floated in flatboats to its long journey's end. It was seen that some more direct route to the West must be provided,

and this was one of the reasons for building the Erie Canal.

Clay was foremost in urging a system of internal improvements at government expense. He saw that one of the great problems of the day was the opening of the West for settlement. One of the plans for accomplishing this was the building of the Cumberland Road. It was begun in 1806, and was built partly by the government and partly by the states through which it passed. The route followed was almost exactly the one taken by General Braddock's army in the French and Indian War. Starting at Cumberland, Maryland, it extended in a northwesterly direction to Washing-



The National Road

ton, Pennsylvania. Then turning west, it passed through the northern part of West Virginia to Wheeling on the Ohio River. From there, it extended westward through the central parts of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, passing through the present prosperous cities of Columbus in Ohio, and Indianapolis and Terre Haute in Indiana to its western terminus at Vandalia, Illinois. It was completed in 1818 and became a main avenue of trade and travel. In this expansion and development of the West, Clay, as a western man, was intensely interested.

But amid the rapid growth and prosperity of our country, another great national problem began to occupy men's minds. Slavery, you will remember, had been early intro-

duced into America, and during the colonial period had existed throughout the colonies.

Few of the earlier statesmen had ventured to defend it on moral grounds, and at the close of the Revolution it was gradually dying out in the North. Opposition to it was most marked in the Constitutional Convention of 1787 among such leaders as Washington, Madison, and Franklin. But the invention of the cotton gin and the rapid increase in the value of the cotton crop made slave labor very profitable. So the southern states began to feel that slavery was just and its continuance necessary for their prosperity. As the western territory became settled and states were organized, the question arose whether these new states should be admitted into the Union as slaveholding or free states. Slavery had already been forbidden in the Northwest Territory, and from this territory the free states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had been created. In the new states south of the Ohio River slavery was permitted. But in the great stretch of land we had acquired by the Louisiana purchase, the question of slavery was still to be settled. Missouri was one of the first states to be formed from this territory. If left to herself, she would naturally permit slavery, for her pioneers were mostly from the South.

The question was sharply debated in Congress, for the North feared the further extension of the political power of the South. At last, by the Compromise of 1820, of which Clay, although not the author, was the warm supporter, Missouri was admitted as a slave state while, with this exception, slavery was forbidden in all the territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$.

Again in 1832, when South Carolina, angered because of a high protective tariff, threatened to secede from the Union, Clay came forward with another compromise plan which

succeeded in quieting the country for a while. For these measures as well as for others which made for peace and for the preservation of the Union, Clay won the title of "the Great Peacemaker." Indeed, his love of country and his desire to serve it honestly and faithfully are the most marked features of his career as a statesman. He believed in the continuance of the national banking system, and in a tariff to protect American industries.

His love of liberty led him to support Greece in her war for independence. His sympathies were also enlisted in behalf of the struggling South American republics. Clay was a slaveholder, but was always humane and kind in his treatment of his slaves, as is shown by an extract from a letter to a friend in the North.

*Several of my Slaves are members
of Christian churches. None of them
are forbidden the use of the Bible.
All of them are more truthful and
respectable than the man whose false-
hood you contradicted.*

Yours
Mr. T. J. Green

H. Clay

Wash. 21.st Feb 1851

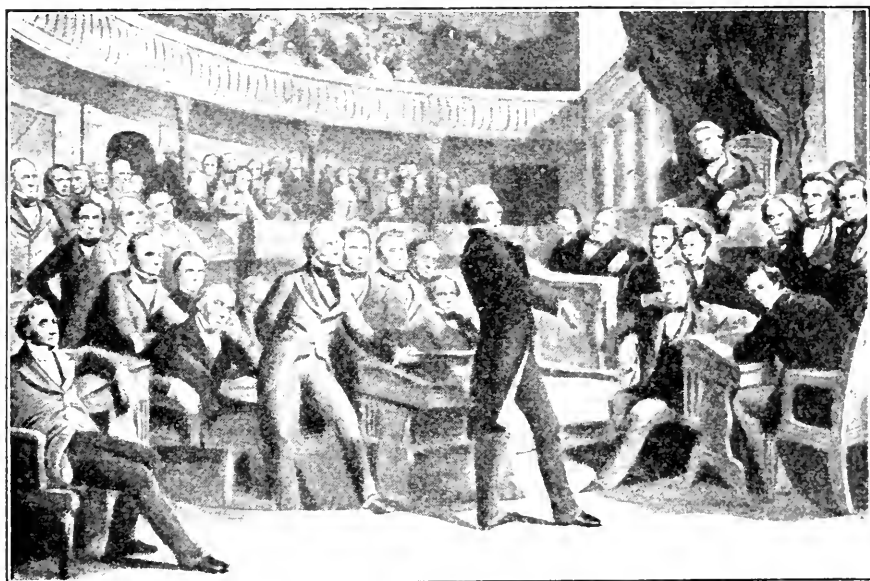
His life's ambition was to be President. But in his active public career he had made many enemies, and he was put aside in favor of smaller men against whom no faction of his party might revolt. This was a bitter disappointment to him and to his friends. His great ability, his power of leadership, and his lofty patriotism would have enabled him to serve his country with dignity and honor in that high office. He never, however, sacrificed his principles to his ambition. At one time, in order to carry through measures which he believed to be necessary for the peace of the country, Senator Clay had to act contrary to the wishes of many political friends. He was warned that by doing so he would lose their support for the presidency, but he made this immortal reply, "I would rather be right than be President."

During these years the question of slavery was increasing in importance. Conciliatory measures gave only temporary relief. The South, in order to gain more territory in which slavery might be established, had brought on a war with Mexico. The pretext for war was most flimsy — merely the ownership of a strip of land between the Rio Grande and Nueces rivers. Although we won every battle of this war, it was no credit to us, for we were like a big bully fighting a little boy for property which he honestly believed was his. However, as a result of the war, we obtained a vast tract of land north of Mexico and extending to the Pacific Ocean.

It was expected by the South that this region would eventually be made into slaveholding states. But the discovery of gold in California changed the whole course of our history. In the great rush of gold seekers to that country, northern men were in the majority, and in 1850 California asked for admission into the Union as a free

state. Again the whole country was thrown into great excitement. The South felt that the Mexican war had been fought by its sons, and now it seemed a grievous wrong that the results of the war should strengthen the political power of the free states.

Clay had expected to retire to private life, but was persuaded to come back to the Senate. He hoped to reconcile the North and the South. A slave owner himself, living in a slave-



Clay speaking in the Senate

holding state, he could not fully realize how earnestly the people of the North were beginning to feel that slavery was a great evil that ought not to be allowed to extend its influence farther. Clay was now seventy-four years of age, with a lifetime behind him rich in honorable service to his country. He longed to harmonize the two opposing sections of the country, for to him the integrity of the Union was greater than the question of slavery.

So he introduced the Compromise of 1850, by which he hoped to satisfy both sides. The main provisions of the bill were: (1) that California should be admitted as a free state, and (2) that all the other territory acquired from Mexico should be organized without any reference to slavery. The measure became a law; but like most compromises it failed to satisfy either side, and it only postponed the inevitable struggle of the Civil War. In its support, however, Clay was governed by his great love for his country and his earnest desire to preserve the Union. His last great public effort seemed to have exhausted him, for his health failed rapidly. He was often so feeble that he could with difficulty reach his seat in the Senate chamber, and at last was unable to attend to his duties as Senator.

Possessing the love and confidence of the whole country, he came to the close of his eventful career, and on the 29th of June, 1852, died in the city of Washington. He was buried at Lexington, and his last resting place is visited even to-day by admirers of the great orator and statesman.

Topical Outline. — Early life and efforts to get an education. Commences the practice of law. Home in Lexington, Kentucky. Causes of the War of 1812; Clay's share in it; its result. Western movement; means and routes of travel; Erie Canal and Cumberland Road. Beginnings of slavery and tariff agitation; Clay's compromise measures. Results.

For Written Work. — I. Tell the story of Clay's boyhood. II. In what way did Clay train himself as a public speaker? III. What were the causes of the War of 1812? IV. Imagine yourself going from New York to Pittsburg a hundred years ago. Describe your journey. V. How did the views of the South regarding slavery change during Clay's lifetime? What were the reasons for this change? VI. Name the three great compromise measures with which Clay's name is associated. VII. Describe one of these measures. VIII. What was the

real cause of the Mexican War? IX. What was Clay's attitude regarding slavery?

Map Work. — Locate Richmond, Va., and Lexington, Ky. Trace the Cumberland Road: Cumberland, Md.; Wheeling; Columbus, O.; Indianapolis; Terre Haute; Vandalia.

Collateral Reading

History. — Clay, "Speech on the War of 1812"; last five paragraphs, U. S. Reader, pp. 284-285.

Biography. — Cravens, "Story of Henry Clay"; Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 145-155; Williams, "Some Successful Americans," pp. 155-171.



Henry Clay's home in Kentucky

DANIEL WEBSTER, THE DEFENDER OF THE CONSTITUTION

AMONG the great statesmen who have swayed men's minds by their persuasive eloquence or have convinced them by their iron logic, the name of Daniel Webster stands pre-eminent. No other American has equaled him in majesty of presence and in power of speech. The few simple words which Lincoln spoke at the dedication of the Gettysburg Cemetery constitute, without question, the greatest single oration ever delivered by an American; but, excepting this address, our history and our literature record no greater and no more enduring orations than those given by Webster. While Clay's and Calhoun's speeches are forgotten, those of Webster are read to-day by thousands. They are, or ought to be, in every school reader, to be learned and declaimed by every American boy who loves his country. It is, therefore, most fitting for us to know something of the life of this commanding figure in our history.

Daniel Webster was born in Salisbury (now Franklin), New Hampshire, on the 18th of January, 1782. His ancestors were Puritan emigrants who came to the New World soon after the founding of the Plymouth Colony. They settled in New Hampshire, where, in a log cabin, Daniel's father, Ebenezer Webster, was born. He grew to be a tall man, of splendid physical strength and of sound character. Daniel used to say that his father was the handsomest man he ever saw, except Daniel's brother Ezekiel. Ebenezer Webster served in the French and Indian wars, where he rose to the

rank of captain, then married and settled in the town of Salisbury. His cabin was an outpost of civilization, on the edge of the primeval forests which stretched away to the far off French settlements of Canada.

When the Revolutionary War broke out, Ebenezer Webster was captain of the militia at Salisbury. The little company of loyal men promptly joined the Continental Army and took part in the siege of Boston. Captain Webster served faithfully through the war. He was in the battles of Bennington and White Plains, and won the approval of General Stark and of Washington himself. In 1780 he was stationed at West Point, at the time Benedict Arnold was in command of that fortress. It is said that on the night when Arnold's treason was discovered, General Washington sent for Webster to guard his tent. Taking him by the hand, Washington said, "Captain Webster, I believe I can trust you."

We may be sure that in after years Captain Webster often proudly told his children how the great general honored and trusted him. But in our account of Daniel's family we must not forget to honor his mother. Some one has said that "the more mother a man has in him, the better he is," and it is undoubtedly true that much of Webster's success in life was due to the early training and self-sacrificing care his mother gave him. She was of pioneer New Hampshire stock, a woman of noble Christian character and of sound common sense.

Daniel was the youngest boy in a family of ten children, and as a child was delicate. For this reason, and also because he was the baby, he was probably petted by his parents and his brothers and sisters. He was allowed to play a great deal and to run free in the fields and forests in the hope that Mother Nature might strengthen his frail body.

Like Sir Walter Scott and Washington Irving, who were also weakly boys, he grew up in close contact with nature, and learned to love hunting and fishing and other healthful outdoor sports. As was the custom in New England, his mother and his older sisters taught him to read at home. The little boy loved to read as well as to play, and his quick memory enabled him to retain readily whatever he read.

Probably his father's example guided him in this, for Mr. Webster had a musical voice and was a fine reader. Often during the long winter evenings he would gather his family around the fireplace and read aloud to them, usually from the Bible. Daniel Webster in after years, in speaking of



Daniel Webster, reading

this custom of his father's, said, "if there be anything in my style or thoughts worthy to be commended, the credit is due to my parents for instilling into my mind an early love for the Scriptures." So, following his father's example, Daniel became a good reader himself. Often the men who came to his father's mill would hitch their horses and say, "Let's

go in and hear little Dan read." Or the farmers on their way to market would stop at Captain Webster's for the noon hour, and while they rested under the shade of the trees, the little boy would read to them some of the fine passages from the Bible.

Webster said of his life at this time, "I read what I could get to read, went to school when I could, and when not at school was a farmer's youngest boy, not good for much, for want of health and strength, but expected to do something."

Daniel's brother, Ezekiel, was two years older, and the boys were very fond of each other. One day Mr. Webster, returning after an absence from home, asked Ezekiel what he had been doing. "Nothing, sir," the boy replied. "Well, Daniel, what have you been doing?" "Helping Zeke, sir," was the quick reply.

Another interesting story is told of Webster's boyhood days. In those days some famous speech or document like the Constitution or the Declaration of Independence was sometimes printed on a handkerchief. One day at the little village store at Salisbury, Daniel saw one of these handkerchiefs with the Constitution printed on it. Eagerly saving his pennies, he at last became its proud purchaser, and from it learned most of the great document, of which, in his maturer years, he was to be the ablest defender.

When Daniel was fourteen years old, his parents decided to send him away to school. Although they were poor, their ambition was to give him a college education. So in the spring of 1796 he entered Phillips Academy at Exeter, New Hampshire. The boy had never before been so far away from home or in such close contact with boys from more prosperous families. They made fun of him and of his clothes, little

realizing that he would become the greatest of them all. This thoughtless ridicule made him so sensitive that when his turn came to speak before the school he was too timid and bashful to do so. Boys of to-day will sympathize with him in his experience, of which he tells us: "Many a piece did I commit to memory and rehearse in my room over and over again. But when the day came, when the school collected, when my name was called and I saw all eyes turned upon my seat, I could not raise myself from it." But he did the rest of his school duties so well that he was soon at the head of his class, and the other boys came to respect him for his ability.

Mr. Webster was unable to keep his son long at Exeter, so Daniel finished his college preparations under Dr. Wood, a clergyman in a village near the Webster home. Here he did not apply himself so closely to his books as he had at the Academy, so that often his master had to chide him for spending too much time in hunting and fishing. One day, as a punishment, Dr. Woods gave the boy one hundred lines of Virgil to memorize. When the time came for his recitation, Daniel had learned not only the task set for him but also four hundred lines more. This pleased the master so much that he said, "Well, Dan, you may have the rest of the day for pigeon-shooting."

In the fall of 1797, Webster finished his preparation and entered Dartmouth College, at Hanover, New Hampshire. Here he read widely and thoughtfully, although he did not take high rank in scholarship. Here also he overcame his boyish timidity, and became one of the best speakers and debaters in the college. He was graduated in 1801 and began the study of law. But his brother Ezekiel, for whom Daniel always had the deepest affection, wished also to have a college

education. Ezekiel had done much to help him through college, and he now saw an opportunity to repay this self-sacrifice. So Daniel applied for and was appointed principal of the Academy at Fryeburg, Maine. He was to have three hundred and fifty dollars for his year's work, and with a part of this money he could help pay his brother's expenses.

He was a successful teacher, and had a strong influence over his pupils. Some of them in old age used to tell of the impressive manner in which Webster offered the morning and evening prayers with which he always opened and closed his school. Out of school hours, he used to earn money by copying deeds, and gave every dollar he could spare to his loyal brother in college.

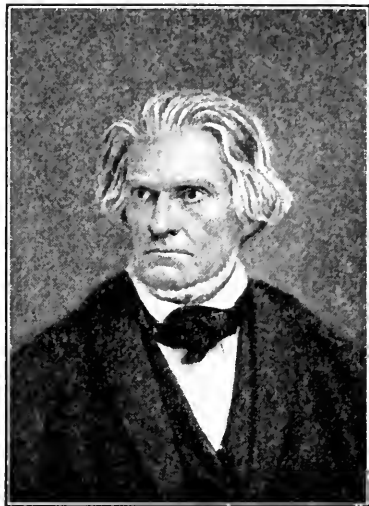
After Ezekiel had finished at Dartmouth, he went to Boston, where he taught a private school. Here Daniel soon joined him and aided in the school, at the same time pursuing his law studies. Daniel was fortunate at this time in obtaining a clerkship in the office of Christopher Gore, a famous lawyer of Boston, from whom Gore Hall in the Harvard Law School was afterwards named. Gore's aid to Webster was of great value, and it was not long before the young man was admitted to the bar. He began the practice of his profession in Boscawen, a little town near his home, but two years later removed to Portsmouth, New Hampshire. Here he soon became a leader in the social and professional life of the city.

In 1812 he was elected to Congress as a member from New Hampshire, and from this time was a prominent figure in our national life.

The generation of statesmen who had won our independence and established a new nation were passing away, and a new race of leaders were taking their places in the halls of Congress.

Among these young men of vigorous intellect and of strong

personality were John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, and Henry Clay of Kentucky. With these men Webster became associated, and it was not long before he was their equal in statecraft and in debate. From the first he allied himself with the Federalist party and advocated its principles. He favored a sound currency, a moderate protective tariff, and internal improvements at the expense of the federal government. But he opposed the War of 1812 as unnecessary and injurious to our commerce. In the debates on these subjects he often came in conflict with Calhoun, who held opposite views.



John C. Calhoun

In 1816 Webster moved from Portsmouth to Boston, where he built up a large and profitable law practice. The demands of his profession compelled him to retire from public life for a time, but in 1823 he was again elected to Congress, and for thirty years represented Massachusetts almost continuously either in the House of Representatives or in the Senate. The period during which his greatest service was given to his country's cause was one of political unrest. Old parties were breaking up and new ones being formed, sectional feelings were being aroused, and the question of slavery was widening the breach between the northern and the southern states. In these stormy times Daniel Webster stands conspicuous in his loyalty to the Union. Indeed, during his long and honorable career, the thought nearest his heart, the thought to which he gave his splendid abilities, was the integrity of the Union

and the sacredness of the Constitution. Love of country, reverence for its institutions, and gratitude for its blessings were the themes on which he loved to dwell and in behalf of which he spoke most eloquently.

Not all of his speeches were delivered in the chambers



Bunker Hill Monument

of Congress. As our foremost American citizen, he was called upon to address great assemblies, or to be the orator at celebrations of great events in our national history. Such were his orations at the laying of the corner stone of the Bunker Hill monument, and also at its dedication, and on the two-hundredth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims. But it was in the fulfillment of his duties as one of the country's lawmakers, when the gaunt specter of secession was abroad, when

he felt that our very national existence was threatened, that he reached the highest flights of oratory.

One of his speeches deserves more than passing mention. The circumstances leading to its delivery were these. By an act of Congress, a high protective tariff had been placed upon goods brought into the United States from abroad. This benefited the manufacturing states of New England, but was not popular in the South. The people of that section wished to buy their goods in the cheapest markets, and these were the markets of Europe. The southern statesmen made the utmost effort to have Congress repeal the tariff law, which they claimed Congress had no right to

pass in the first place. Failing in this, some of the states even threatened to secede. The leaders in this disloyal movement were Calhoun and Hayne, the Senators from South Carolina. Their arguments were based upon the doctrine of state rights; they claimed that a state might, under certain circumstances, decide that a law of the federal government was unconstitutional; that the state could then nullify it, or refuse to allow its enforcement within boundaries of the state; and also that a state might secede, or withdraw from the Union, whenever it liked.

Against this dangerous doctrine Webster opposed all the force of his powerful intellect. He held that the Constitution had established a union of the states, — not a partnership to be dissolved at will, — and that no state could refuse to obey the laws of the nation.

The debates on the subject continued for a long time and became increasingly bitter. Finally they culminated in an attack by Mr. Hayne upon Massachusetts and upon Mr. Webster personally. It was a masterly speech, and the friends of the Union feared that it was unanswerable. Mrs. Webster had heard the speech, and when her husband returned from the Senate, she anxiously asked him if he could answer the arguments. With almost a roar, Mr. Webster replied, "Answer him! I'll grind him to powder." He had only the one night in which to prepare his answer, but, in another sense, he was fully prepared. The Constitution had been his life study; he understood his subject thoroughly, and had often used similar arguments elsewhere.

The next day, as he was entering the Senate chamber, a friend said to him, "It is a critical moment. It is time, it is high time, that the people of this country shall know what this Constitution is."

"Then," answered Webster, "by the blessing of Heaven they shall learn, this day, before the sun goes down, what I understand it to be."

On the eventful day, the galleries, floors, and even the stair-ways of the Senate chamber were crowded with people. Even the House of Representatives was deserted while its members eagerly came to hear the great orator. For hours, Mr. Webster held his audience spellbound. With all the power of his eloquence, with all the magnetism of his personal presence, he appealed to the loyalty of his hearers. His voice, now soft and musical, now deep and solemn, thrilled with the majesty of his theme. He closed his oration with these sublime words:

"When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union; on states dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood!

"Let their last feeble and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, still high advanced, its arms and trophies streaming in their original luster, not a stripe erased or polluted, not a single star obscured, bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as 'What is all this worth?' nor those other words of delusion and folly, 'Liberty first and Union afterwards'; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every American heart — Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

The effect of this splendid speech was wonderful. It voiced the loyalty of the North. It was read everywhere. It

was memorized and spoken by thousands of boys in northern schoolhouses. It was understood by the humblest voters. Without doubt this and other great speeches of Webster contributed largely to the moral strength and courage of the "boys in blue" during the long years of the Civil War.

Webster had not only the mighty intellect and the musical voice of a great orator, but he had also an impressive physical presence. He was, in youth, tall and slender, with dark eyes which seemed fairly to burn beneath the heavy brows; Carlyle called them "dull anthracite furnaces needing only to be blown." In his maturer years his stately form filled out; he was nearly six feet tall. His head was massive, and a broad, deep brow indicated the mental strength beneath. A sailor who saw him walking in the streets of Liverpool, England, said, "There goes a king." Wendell Phillips tells the story of his attending a Whig convention at a time when that party seemed about to disband. Rising in his seat, Webster said, "Gentlemen, I am a Whig, a constitutional Whig, a Massachusetts Whig, a Faneuil Hall Whig, and if you break up the Whig party, where, sirs, am I to go?" "And," says Phillips, "we all held our breath wondering where he could go. If he had been five feet three we should have said, 'who cares where you go.'"



Daniel Webster

Like Clay, Webster had a worthy ambition to serve his country in the highest office within the gift of the people. Twice the nomination of his party for President seemed within

his grasp, and twice it escaped him only to be given to men whose chief claim for distinction was their military renown. The cause of his defeat the second time was undoubtedly due to the position he took in supporting the Compromise of 1850.

One of the provisions of that famous bill was with reference to the return of slaves who had escaped from their owners. This unjust measure provided that an escaped negro could be arrested and, without a jury trial or an opportunity to testify in his own behalf, could be returned to the person who claimed to be his owner. Sometimes, in its operation, even free negroes were kidnaped and carried back to slavery. This fugitive slave law was most unpopular in the North, and many people secretly aided runaway slaves in escaping to Canada.

When Webster spoke in favor of this law he deeply offended his northern supporters. They felt that he had deserted the cause and the ideals of a lifetime. But we can see more clearly than our fathers did that the judgment then passed upon him was unjust; that his course at that time, as well as at all others, was guided by his love for the Union; that his object was peace and the burying of all sectional antagonism between the North and the South. He saw clearly that this attitude would alienate his friends, but he felt his duty to his country was greater than his desire to be President. His political career soon ended, and he retired to his home at Marshfield, Massachusetts, a broken old man.

At Marshfield, Webster hoped to find rest and comfort in his old age. His home was a beautiful estate with its lawns sloping gently to the sea. Here for years he had been accustomed to come when wearied with affairs of state, and here he had lived the simple life of a farmer among his neighbors and friends.

He retained his boyhood love for nature, and would often be found wading the trout brooks in the vicinity, or sailing on the bay in front of his house. He was fond of his cattle, and prided himself on having the finest oxen in the state.

In May, 1852, while driving, he was thrown from his carriage and severely injured. The wear and tear of half a century of public life left him no reserve of strength, and he failed rapidly. During his last illness, he suffered greatly from sleeplessness. He had a little boat on the pond back of his house, and by his orders an American flag was run up to the masthead and lighted at night by a ship lantern, so that his sleepless hours were comforted by the sight of the flag he loved. Feeling that his earthly career was soon to be finished, he awaited the end with Christian courage. Always a believer in God and in the divinity of Christ, he desired to leave some enduring record of his faith. Accordingly, he prepared an inscription for his monument which reads, in part:

“The Sermon on the Mount cannot be a merely human production. This belief enters into the very depth of my conscience. The whole history of man proves it.

“DAN’L WEBSTER.”

On the evening of the 23rd of October, 1852, he died, mourned by a whole nation. In his lifetime he had been very close to the hearts of the people, and they came from far and near to pay their last tribute of respect to his memory. One old man, bending over the casket, said pathetically, “The world without you, Daniel Webster, will be lonesome.”

In thinking of Daniel Webster, always remember his manliness and courtesy. In a time when political antagonisms were bitter, when personal feeling ran high, Webster never forgot that he was a gentleman. Though attacked,

and sometimes insulted by the press or by political opponents, he replied, if at all, with moderation. In the arrangement of his speeches for publication, he directed the omission of all passages in which he had spoken severely of others, even when those references were justly provoked by unfair attacks on his integrity as a man. He was indeed a great American, and the strength of our united nation is due to-day, in a large measure, to his eloquent defense of the Constitution and to his patriotic devotion to his country.

Topical Outline. — Webster's rank as an orator. Webster's early home; New England ancestry; father and mother. His school and college days; love for his brother Ezekiel. Public career, as member of Congress and United States Senator. The Webster-Hayne debate; Webster as an orator; personal appearance. His attitude on the compromise measures of 1850; loss of friends; return to private life; home at Marshfield; death. Traits of character.

For Written Work. — I. Describe Daniel Webster's parents. II. How did Daniel acquire his love for reading? for outdoor sports? III. Tell the story of Daniel's school days. IV. Who were the leading men in Congress during Webster's time? V. What were Webster's political views? VI. Name some of Webster's great speeches. VII. Describe the events leading up to his "Reply to Hayne." VIII. Describe Webster's personal appearance. IX. What is there in his character that you admire? X. How does Webster rank as an orator? XI. What was his influence upon the political life of the United States?

Map Work. — Locate Franklin (Salisbury), and Hanover, N. H.; Portsmouth; Boston; Marshfield (p. 60).

Memory Selection. — Last paragraph of the "Reply to Hayne."

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Baldwin, "Four Great Americans," pp. 125-186; Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 37-48; Hart and Chapman, "How Our Grandfathers Lived," pp. 28-31, 341-344.

INVENTIONS AND INVENTORS

AFTER the Revolutionary War was over and the new government was established, men began to give more attention to industrial questions. The country was in debt, and the taxes were necessarily heavy. Men tried to devise methods by which labor could be lightened and at the same time could bring greater profits. It is often called the period of inventions. Certainly some very important inventions were made in the last years of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries. Such inventions are quite as important events in history as wars and elections, for inventions modify life and work, and history is really a record of the life and the work of the people of a nation.

ELI WHITNEY AND THE COTTON GIN

Eli Whitney was born in Massachusetts in 1765, so he was ten years old when the battle of Lexington was fought. His father was a small farmer. He also had a workshop, and in the winter made wheels and chairs, and did odd jobs of mending tools for his neighbors. The young boy liked to play in the shop. He not only learned readily the use of tools, but showed unusual mechanical genius.

Once when Eli was twelve years old, his father was away from home for two or three days, during which time Eli made a fiddle. It was examined by many people, who pronounced it an excellent piece of work for a boy. The story is also told that about this time he took his father's watch to pieces

and put it together again. He understood its mechanism so well that it kept as good time afterward as before, and his father knew nothing about it until some years later, when the boy told what he had done.

At thirteen, Eli made some good knives. He was then repeatedly called upon by the family and by the neighbors to do all sorts of repairing of furniture, kitchen utensils, and farm tools. During the Revolutionary War, nails were very scarce. When fifteen years old, Eli told his father that he would make nails if the iron could be furnished. He turned out good nails made by hand, which were in such demand that he was obliged to employ extra help. When the war was over, making nails was no longer profitable, so he turned his attention to the making of hat pins. The ladies were delighted, for his hat pins were better and cheaper than those in common use.

He saved the money earned in these ways to go to college. In the fall of 1789 he entered Yale, and was graduated in 1792, at the age of twenty-seven. He went to the South to teach, and soon became acquainted with the widow of General Nathanael Greene, who was living at Mulberry Grove, near Savannah. Whitney was disappointed in his teaching venture, and Mrs. Greene offered him a home until he should find something to do. He made himself very useful in helping the children with their lessons, and in making and mending many things with great ingenuity.

From the time of the earliest settlements in the South, cotton had been raised. Recent inventions in England had increased the rapidity of spinning and weaving, and all the cotton raised found ready market, but the cost of cotton cloth was as great as that of silk cloth because of the difficulty of separating the cotton seed from the fiber. The fluffy white

ball containing the cotton is called a boll, and sprinkled through it are the seeds of the cotton. Negro women were usually employed for removing these seeds, and the average day's work was the cleaning of one pound of cotton. The most skillful workman could clean no more than four or five pounds in a day, or a bale in three months.

Some guests at Mrs. Greene's were discussing the question, when Mrs. Greene suggested that Mr. Whitney might be able to find some easier and quicker way of removing the seeds; "for," said she, "he can make anything." He was pleased with the idea, and eagerly set to work. He first made a careful study of the cotton boll, noting the number, size, and quality of the seeds. He then worked out the general idea of the cotton gin, which he first made on a small scale.

He needed wire, but the kind he wanted could not be purchased in Savannah. Travel was too slow to send North, so he drew his own wire. Necessary tools also had to be made.

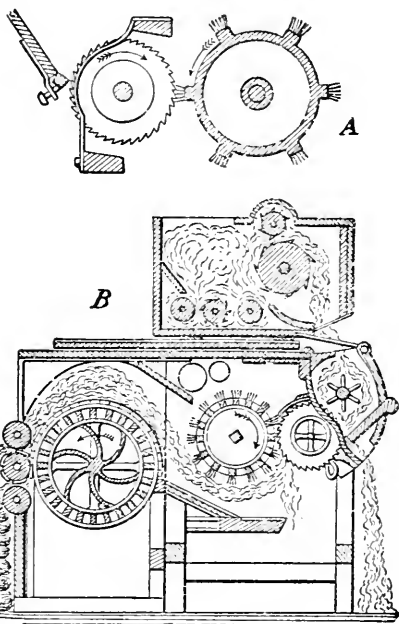


Eli Whitney at Work

But he kept steadily at work and overcame all such obstacles. He was encouraged and helped by a neighbor, Mr. Miller, who was also a Yale graduate.

Late in the winter of 1793 the model was completed; it was tested and worked well. The machine consisted of two cylinders four feet long mounted on a strong frame.

Around one of these cylinders, which was five inches in diameter, were saws set one half inch apart, rising two inches from the surface of the cylinder. As this cylinder revolved, the saws passed through corresponding slits too small for the seeds. The other cylinder had rows of stiff brushes. The cotton was put into a hopper where it was met by the saw-teeth on the revolving cylinder and torn from the seeds, then swept from the teeth into a receptacle by the stiff brushes.



The Cotton Gin

(A) Whitney's Original Gin; (B) A Later Form

Whitney and his friend Miller formed a partnership to get a patent, and to manufacture and sell the machines. In great excitement men came to see the machine, but if it was to be patented it must not be shown. Some one broke into the workshop and stole one of the models. Then imitations appeared in various places, which caused Whitney a great deal of trouble. In fact, he never received just reward for his great invention.

The cotton gin was a great gift to the southern states. It could be operated by one man and clean in one day 1000 pounds of cotton. Later, by using horse power, 5000 or 6000 pounds could be cleaned in one day. That is, it multiplied a man's labor a thousandfold. This led every one to raise cotton. Much of the work could be done by women and children and unskilled slave labor. Immediately, there was a great increase in the demand for slaves in all the cotton states.

In a way, we can trace a direct connection between the invention of the cotton gin and the Civil War. The cotton gin on the other hand brought great prosperity, not only to the South but to the whole United States. It made cotton cloth cheaper, and in that way all poor people were benefited.

Eli Whitney never personally profited by the invention, but later he made a large fortune in the manufacture of firearms. The best muskets used in the War of 1812 came from Whitney's manufacturing establishment at New Haven, Connecticut. He died in that city in January, 1825, honored not only by all who knew him but by the country at large.

Topical Outline. — Boyish ingenuity. Education; life in the South. Limits to profitable cotton raising. The cotton gin. The importance of the gin. Whitney did not profit by the invention.

For Written Work. — I. Describe cotton growing, picking, and cleaning. II. Describe in your own words the machine and how it worked.

ELIAS HOWE

Methods of sewing are as old as clothing itself. Whatever the skin or fabric used, it had to be shaped and sewed in order to cover the body. To us of the twentieth century, it seems strange that for thousands of years no one found a way easier than sewing by hand; for the sewing machine was

not used till about 1850. There are men living to-day who knew the inventor, Elias Howe.

The first sewing was doubtless done by drawing a string or fibrous thread through holes punched in the fabric. The next step required a needle. This was first made of bone, and later of ivory. It was not until comparatively modern times that needles were made of steel. But even when a fine sharp needle and smooth thread had been found, the labor of making garments was very hard. Hood's poem was true of many a woman.

“With fingers weary and worn,
With eyelids heavy and red,
A woman sits in unwomanly rags,
Plying her needle and thread —
Stitch! Stitch! Stitch!
In poverty, hunger, and dirt.”

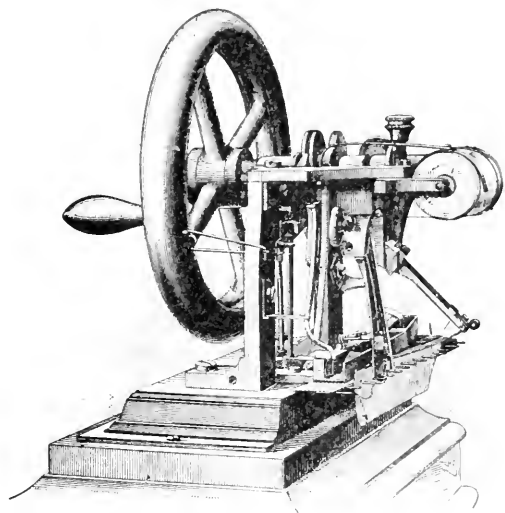
Unsuccessful efforts had been made before that of Howe, but the machines we use to-day are practically all outgrowths of his invention.

Elias Howe was born in Spencer, Massachusetts, in 1819. He was one of eight children, all of whom had to go to work when quite young. He was never very strong, and that may explain why he was always trying to find an easier way to do his work than to obey orders. Such a disposition, however, has led to other great inventions.

He married at twenty-one, and found it very difficult to provide for his family on a dollar and a half a day. His young wife early took in sewing to help with the expenses. In the evening, after the children were put to bed, Howe used to lie on the couch, exhausted from his own day's work, and watch his wife sew. It grieved him, for he knew that her day, too, had been hard. It was then that his mind began

to work out a plan for making sewing easier. In less than a year he had made a rude machine in which the needle was made to work in imitation of hand sewing. He saw that the method was clumsy, and decided that two threads must be run together. He then experimented with two needles, but later devised a shuttle to carry the lower thread, and a needle with the eye in the point to carry the upper thread. The first model on this plan was patented in 1845.

The year and a half of experimenting had brought with it great sacrifice and suffering. His wages were small. He had three children. His health was poor. The only time he could spare was at night after his day's work was over. Every bit of wire or wood



Howe's First Sewing Machine

needed cost money. But still Elias Howe did not give up. Finally a friend named Fisher, in Cambridge, Massachusetts, lent him \$500 and gave him the use of his shop. This was a great favor, and Howe's final success was largely due to this generosity.

Like so many other inventors, Howe suffered through the ignorance of the very people who would be benefited by the invention. He first offered it to the tailors of Boston. They would have nothing to do with the machine, and declared it would ruin their business. For over a year, he and Mr. Fisher tried to get people to use it, but all kinds of workmen

stubbornly refused. Finally, Howe went to England, and for eight months worked for an umbrella maker, who proved such a hard master that Howe decided to return home. He was obliged to pawn the model of his sewing machine to get money to pay his passage, and he reached America with only a dollar in his pocket. He found his wife very ill, and a few days later she died.

It was not until 1854, ten years after he made his first machine, that fortune began to favor him. The ignorance of the people had been overcome. The machine was adapted to stitching leather as well as both heavy and light weight fabrics. Many improvements such as hemmers, tuckers, etc., were added both by himself and by others. About three hundred modifications were patented between 1858 and 1867. After Howe became prosperous, he helped many struggling inventors. When he died, at the age of forty-eight, he was not only a very rich man, but was honored by the people of both Europe and America.

The sewing machine has been a great benefit to society. It has been adapted to a great variety of uses. It is easier and quicker to operate a machine than to sew by hand. This has so multiplied the output that whatever has been made by machine is much cheaper. So not only the immediate workmen, but every man, woman, and child has been benefited by the sewing machines.

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Mowry, "American Inventions and Inventors," pp. 148-152; Hubert, "Inventors," pp. 69-99, 99-111; Williams, "Some Successful Americans," pp. 147-153.

COMMERCE AND TRAVEL

ROBERT FULTON AND THE STEAMBOAT

IN the early days, travel either by land or by water was a slow process. A journey of days or weeks on foot was not unusual. The only other ways of land travel were by horseback or by stagecoach. Horses on the roads in this new country could rarely make forty miles a day. The easier mode of travel, of course, was by water, and for that reason the new settlements were planted on the coast or on rivers. Canoes, made of light frames covered with bark or skins, were used on the small streams for short distances. Large boats were dependent on the wind. The early explorers had many sad experiences in being windbound. Drake's ship was once becalmed just off the harbor of Lima, and the ships of the Jamestown colony were held in sight of England for several weeks because of adverse winds.

The *Mayflower* was nine weeks in crossing the Atlantic, and ten years later the Massachusetts Bay colonists were seventy-six days in traveling a distance that can to-day be covered in six days or less. This great change has come about largely through the work and genius of Robert Fulton.

Robert Fulton was born in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, the same year that Eli Whitney was born. His parents were genial, hard-working Irish people. When Robert was three years of age, the father died, leaving a family of five small children. The mother was a thrifty woman, and the children were well cared for in spite of her very small income.

The boy went to school and learned the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic. He was not a brilliant pupil, but certainly a very bright boy, interested in the life about him. His mother went to the teacher one day and suggested that he be given harder tasks and be required to study more. The teacher replied that Robert himself had asserted that his brain was so full of original ideas that there was no room for the storage of the contents of dusty books. He was then ten years old.

Like Whitney, he early showed mechanical genius. He made his own lead pencils at the age of ten. When he was thirteen, that is, in 1778, candles were so scarce in his home town because of the war, that the village officers forbade their use for Fourth of July illumination. Young Fulton invented a skyrocket as a substitute, saying that he would illuminate the heavens instead of the streets.

He and another boy used to go fishing on the Conestoga River, but they found "poling" a flat-bottomed boat hard work. So they made a paddle wheel and fastened it to the boat. This was made to revolve by turning a crank. It worked well, and they considered it more satisfactory than "poling." Such a paddle wheel was also applied years later in Fulton's first steamboats.

As a young boy, he showed skill in drawing. A neighbor, noticing this, gave him lessons in both drawing and painting. At seventeen, Fulton went to Philadelphia, where in four years he earned enough money by painting pictures, not only to pay for his lessons and support himself, but also to buy a farm for his mother. The close application to work, however, during those four years, had been bad for his health. He showed symptoms of consumption, so his friends advised him to go abroad for travel.

While in Philadelphia, he had become acquainted with Franklin, who was now in France. His old neighbor, the artist West, was living in England. Both men were fond of young Fulton and urged his visiting Europe; so in 1786, when he was twenty-one, he crossed the Atlantic.

Although he supported himself by painting pictures, yet his mind moved and worked along lines of mechanical thought. His first inventions were a machine for sawing marble, one for spinning flax, and one for making rope.

As Fulton was a boy during the days of the Revolutionary War, he heard much about military affairs. He was early familiar with all weapons, from the musket to the cannon, and with methods of defense and attack. This probably explains the fact that some of his early inventions were to make warfare more effective. He invented cable cutters, a torpedo, and a submarine or diving boat. The torpedo consisted of an oval copper case, charged with gunpowder. The explosion was regulated by clockwork that could spring the lock and fire the charge. It was not very successful in actual use, but the British were so afraid of it that they avoided boats or harbors supplied with Fulton's torpedoes. Fulton gave much thought to the construction of a vessel that might move beneath the surface of the water, — a submarine boat. He found difficulty in guiding such a boat and in giving it sufficient speed. It was then changed slightly, and was used as a diving boat to carry or explode the torpedoes.

When Fulton was a little over thirty, while still in Europe, his thoughts took another turn, and he became interested in improving the means of travel and transportation. He worked out several improvements for canal boats and locks.

The steam engine was already known and used in many places. Several men had tried experiments with boats to be propelled by steam power. A man by the name of Fitch had come nearer success than had any other man. The attempts usually failed because the engine was too heavy for its motive power. The first boats had paddles or oars on each side to be moved or worked by the engine within. This was a heavy and clumsy affair, and if the boat did move there was little room left in it to carry anything.

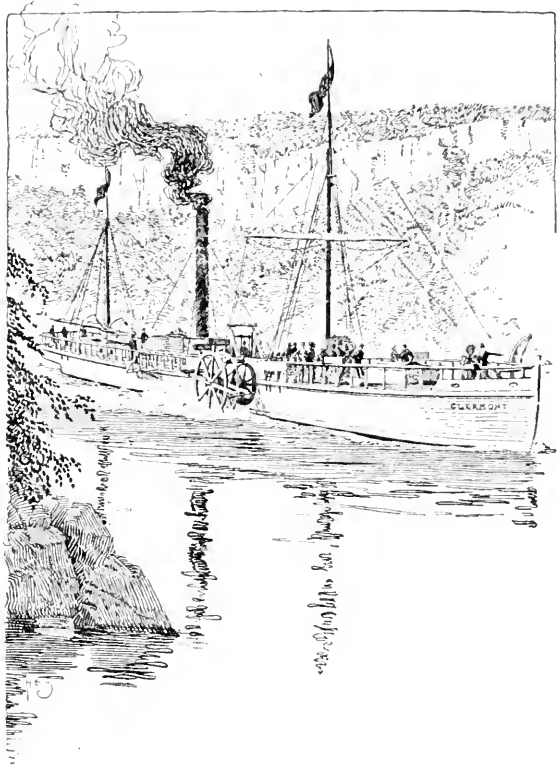
When Robert Fulton became interested in the subject, he introduced the paddle wheel which in his boyhood he had found so useful on his old fishing boat. The steam engine was used to turn this huge paddle wheel. The first boat of the kind failed, for the timbers used in the boat proper were not strong enough to hold the heavy machinery. The principle was good, so when the boat was rebuilt and other improvements were added, the result was a success.

Fulton had been fortunate in his friends. Franklin had been of great help to him, and had made it possible for the young American to meet many men of science in Paris. But the best friend proved to be Robert Livingston, who before going to France had been interested in the subject of steam navigation. Livingston encouraged him and furnished money during the days of experimentation with the steamboat on the Seine.

Fulton returned to America in the fall of 1806, and immediately secured a well-known shipbuilder to construct under his direction the first successful American steamboat. This ship, the *Clermont*, was finished in August, 1807. Few men thought that a ship could be moved by steam power. When the *Clermont* left the shipyard on the East River and crossed over to the Jersey shore, a crowd of curious

people were ready to jeer at Fulton and his "folly," as it was called. But instead of jeering, they were dumb with surprise when they saw it glide swiftly away.

The first trip of the *Clermont* was from New York to Albany. In a letter to a friend, Fulton wrote as follows: "My steamboat voyage to Albany and back has turned out rather more favorable than I had calculated. The distance from New York to Albany is 150 miles. I ran it up in thirty-two hours and down in thirty hours. The power of propelling boats by steam is now fully proved." Men who owned the old-fashioned boats tried to wreck the new one, and in every way imaginable sought to defeat its success.



The *Clermont*, on its First Trip

In spite of all opposition, soon after the trial trip it was run regularly between New York and Albany. Other boats were built and put into service, so that a little later one left each city each day. Steam ferryboats were soon constructed, and regular lines were established between New York and Brooklyn, and across the Hudson River.

But the great inventor did not live to see the crossing of

the Atlantic accomplished by steam power. One stormy winter's day he took a severe cold superintending some work on a steam frigate, and a few days later, February 24, 1815, at the age of fifty, he died.

The first ocean steamer to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*, in 1819. From year to year improvements were made, and by 1840 steamship lines were running regularly between Europe and America. To-day the ocean steamships are floating palaces with electric lights and wireless telegraph facilities. The average ship can carry 1600 people — some, as many as 3000, with a capacity of 10,000 tons of fuel and cargo combined. Many of these ocean liners cross in a week, the record time being about five days. Fulton would probably not be surprised at this, for he fully believed in the almost unlimited possibilities of steam navigation.

In the fall of 1909, a celebration of two weeks was held in New York and in the towns along the Hudson River in honor of Fulton's invention. In the naval parade of this celebration was an exact replica of the *Clermont*.

Topical Outline. — Boyhood ingenuity shown. Went to Philadelphia and worked as an artist. Went to Europe. Early inventions. Steamboat experiments while in France. *Clermont* on the Hudson. Later boats.

For Written Work. — I. Imagine that you stood on the wharf when the *Clermont* steamed away; tell why you were surprised. II. What are some of the benefits of steam navigation? III. Why should a man, who spends much time, hard work, and money to make an invention, be permitted for a time to control the manufacture and sale of the thing invented?

Map Work. — Locate (p. 60) Lancaster (the chief city of Lancaster County, Pa.), Albany, New York; the Seine.

THE ERIE CANAL — CLINTON'S GREAT WORK

After the War of 1812 the territory north of the Ohio River was rapidly settled. The land was fertile, and much grain was raised for shipment to the East and to Europe. But the expense of transportation greatly reduced the profits. Much produce was sent down the Mississippi and sold in New Orleans for export. With the money thus gained some manufactured goods were bought and carried back up the river; but others were secured from New York or Philadelphia. Goods from Philadelphia were drawn by teams along the Pennsylvania turnpike to Pittsburg, and thence shipped down the Ohio. From New York goods were shipped up the Hudson, then carted from Albany to Buffalo over the Genesee turnpike, and again shipped on Lake Erie.

These turnpikes were well-built roads kept in repair by tolls collected along the route. At convenient intervals were road houses, or inns, where teamsters could have meals or stay over night, and get fresh horses. Transportation companies controlled most of this work, and charged from five to eight dollars a hundredweight for carrying freight between Albany and Lake Erie.

The time required for this trip was about three weeks, but in favorable weather it might fall a day or two short of this. In going west, the load consisted of clothing, furniture, tools, and manufactured articles of every description; on the return trip all sorts of farm products were sometimes carried.

For years men talked of a canal along the route of the Genesee turnpike, as transportation by water had always been cheaper than by land. As early as 1808 Judge Foreman,

one of the founders of Syracuse, New York, suggested in the state legislature that a canal should be built connecting Lake Erie and the Hudson River, and James Geddes was directed to make a preliminary survey of the route. Later, the United States Congress was asked to build such a canal, and when they refused the people of New York were urged by De Witt Clinton to undertake the work. He was made chairman of a board of commissioners, and through his zeal the survey and preparations were rapidly pushed. Ground was broken at Rome, July 4, 1817, and that fall Clinton was elected governor of New York. The people who voted for him voted for the



The Erie Canal

canal, yet there was great opposition. He was ridiculed, and the canal was called "Clinton's Big Ditch."

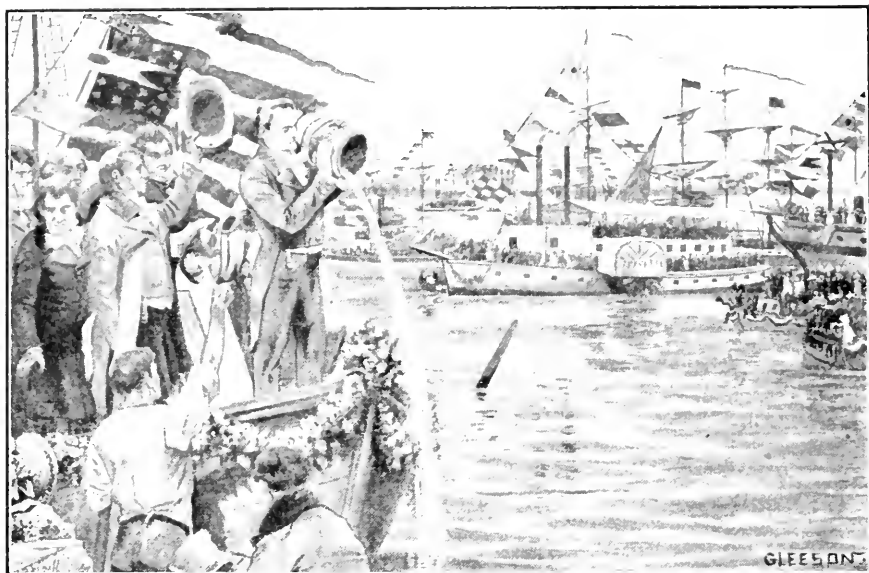
The Erie Canal is 363 miles long, and the original cost was \$9,000,000. Boats carrying freight are drawn by horses or mules, but one team can draw a very much greater load than is possible with wagons. As soon as the canal was opened for traffic the freight charges were greatly reduced. Before the canal was built it cost \$1.10 to carry a bushel of wheat from western New York to New York city, and the time taken to make the trip was about three weeks. After its completion the freight rate was reduced

to forty cents a bushel and the time shortened to less than a week. The rate now is less than three cents a bushel.

Water entered the Erie Canal October 26, 1825, and on that day a flotilla of gayly decked boats with distinguished men on board left Buffalo. The news was sent to New York in an hour and twenty minutes by the firing of cannon placed at intervals along the route. It may be of interest to know that many of the cannon were those captured by Perry in the battle of Lake Erie. The boat of honor in the flotilla was called the *Seneca Chief*, and was drawn by four white horses. Another boat was known as *Noah's Ark*; it had on board a bear, a deer, eagles, various other birds, and two Seneca Indians in native dress. All along the way crowds of people cheered as the gay procession passed. At Albany, the travelers left the boats and went to the capitol, where speeches were made. In the evening there was a grand illumination in the city and at the water front.

The next day the journey was resumed, and in twenty-four hours they had reached New York. Steamboats were used on the river, and some of the canal boats were towed by these. The flotilla was joined at New York by many pleasure boats, and they sailed down the bay to Sandy Hook, where the final ceremonies were to be performed. November 4 was the wedding day of Lake Erie and the Atlantic Ocean.

On board the *Seneca Chief* was a handsomely painted keg of water from Lake Erie. This Governor Clinton lifted into full view of the multitude of people, and poured its contents into the Atlantic, saying: "This solemnity at this place, on the first arrival of vessels from Lake Erie, is intended to commemorate the navigable communication which has been accomplished between our 'Mediterranean' seas and the Atlantic." A salute was fired, and other demonstrations



Ceremonies in New York Bay

expressed the satisfaction of the people. The company then returned to New York city, where everybody was enjoying a holiday. A great street parade had lasted all day, and in the evening a banquet was held. The punch bowl used at this banquet is to-day in the City Hall of New York.

The Erie Canal has returned to the people of the state many times the cost of its construction and maintenance. It turned the vast trade of the West toward New York city. All points along the line were benefited. The cities of Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, and Albany grew very rapidly, and scores of thriving manufacturing towns sprang up along the banks of the canal. The central New York farmers were furnished a cheap means of marketing their produce. Passenger packets were a great improvement over the old stagecoaches for long distance travel. Soon, however, the railroads displaced them, for travel by rail was soon discovered to be much quicker.

To-day, people are interested in a barge canal, that is, one that will be deep enough to allow the lake steamers to pass through to New York, thus saving much expense in trans-shipment. Heavy freight, such as lumber and coal, is still carried on canal boats, but all perishable products and all fast freight go by rail.

Topical Outline. — Old route from the West to the seaboard. Genesee turnpike. De Witt Clinton believed that a canal should follow this route. State decided to build it. Completed October, 1825. Ceremony at Sandy Hook. Benefits of the canal.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph to show that Ohio and Indiana were benefited as much as New York by the Erie Canal. II. Write a paper either for or against the barge canal.

Map Work. — Trace the route of the Erie Canal and locate the prominent cities on the canal.

GEORGE STEPHENSON AND THE STEAM RAILWAY

While Robert Fulton's application of steam power to travel by water had been a great blessing, there was still need for improved methods of travel by land. Many men believed that in time steam would be used for this purpose, but the question was, how. Railroads had been used for various purposes for years. Such railroads consisted simply of a track; first the rails were of wood, and later of iron. Horses were used to draw wagons whose wheels fitted the rails.

Steam engines had become useful for various kinds of work. It simply remained for some one to combine these elements into some practical form for travel and transportation. The person who did this was the Englishman, George Stephenson.

He was born in Northumberland, England, in June, 1781.

His father was a poor laborer in a coal mine, and had a large family of children. Each boy had to go to work at an early age, to help support himself and the younger children. At first, George earned about four cents a day watching cows, then he hoed turnips for sixteen cents a day. But such work did not last long at a time, so his father got a place for George as engine boy at the mine. At fifteen, he was made fireman. He liked the work and loved his engine so well that he did not want to leave it when working hours were over. The engine seemed like something alive. Its power fascinated the boy. While still a fireman he is said to have taken the engine all apart and put it together again. He was often asked to help the engineers at work on engines out of repair. All this prepared the way for his next promotion, when he became an engineer.

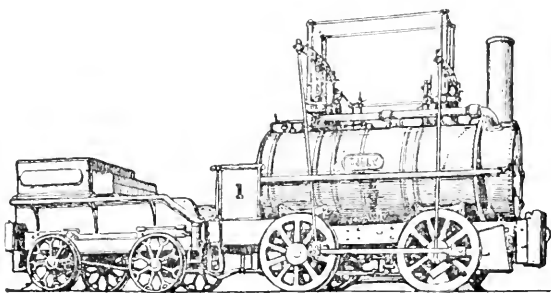
He was a thrifty boy, saving money even on very small wages. Evenings after his day's work was over, he mended shoes and cleaned watches. His school days had been very few, and during the years from seventeen to twenty he used every spare minute for study. Often he had a book open beside him at his engine, or in the evening while mending shoes. He showed great readiness in mathematics and science.

In 1814 a prize was offered for the invention of a safety lamp for miners. Stephenson knew the life of miners and knew well its dangers. He began to experiment, and soon devised a good safety lamp and offered it to the committee. But just about the same time, Humphry Davy did the same thing, and the prize went to Davy. Both of their lamps, with slight changes, are used in mines all over the world to-day.

For several years Stephenson had put much time and his best thought on the question of travel by steam power on

land. In 1814 he built his first locomotive. The machinery of a steam engine for drawing cars on a railroad must be arranged as compactly as possible. The boiler, which was erect in most engines of the day, he put in a horizontal position. His most serious problem was how to get up enough fire in the space that he could allow for a fire box. The first locomotive he built could produce only steam enough to draw

itself. He studied this in operation and hit upon the "steam blast" idea. That is, he used the escaping steam to create a strong draft for the fire. It is this that causes the puffing of



Puffing Billy

an engine so familiar to us all. That engine of his was named "Puffing Billy." Puffing Billy had a drawing power of double its own weight at a speed of twelve miles an hour. It is the perfecting of this device that has made it possible to reduce the height of smokestacks on locomotives.

There were still many difficulties in the way. Stephenson needed money, which he did not have. Before a railroad can be built, the privilege must be gained from the government, and the right of way must be granted by the people who own the land along which the road is to go. All classes of people tried to prevent the giving of these privileges. Writers in papers and magazines were against him. One said, "What can be more absurd than the prospect held out of locomotives traveling twice as fast as stagecoaches? We should as soon expect the people to suffer themselves to be fired off upon a rocket as to trust themselves

to the mercy of such a machine going at the rate of twelve miles an hour." Another said, "It is certainly all over with England, if she will allow herself to be converted into a gridiron and covered with tea kettles." Writers also declared that locomotives would kill the birds, prevent cows from grazing and hens from laying, burn houses, and cause the extinction of the race of horses.

Stephenson was called a maniac by some and a villain by others, — a maniac, because no sane man could think such a thing possible; a villain, because no honest man would so deceive the public.

Much of the surveying for the first road had to be done at night, because respectable people, as well as others, would attack the men and prevent their working. The Stockton and Darlington Company was the first organized, and Stephenson was made engineer of construction. It was slow work, for the grading, track laying, and locomotive building were all under this one man's supervision. He was three years at work on this line of eight miles. One of the company became impatient and said to him one day, "George, you must get on with this railway faster and have it done by the first of January."

"It is impossible," said Stephenson.

"Impossible!" exclaimed the man, "I wish I could get Napoleon at you. He would tell you that there is no such word."

"Don't speak to me of Napoleon. Give me men, money, and materials, and I will do what Napoleon couldn't do — drive a railroad train from Liverpool to Manchester over Chat Moss!" replied Stephenson.

The first trip was made in September, 1825. Stephenson was in the engine as engineer. The train consisted of six

wagons loaded with coal and flour, three coaches with the officers of the road, besides carriages having six hundred passengers crowded in and hanging on the outside. The speed was from four to six miles an hour. The next trip was made at fourteen miles an hour. This first run of eight miles proved to the public that steam travel by land was a success.

Just after this trial trip a dinner was given to the great engineer, at which he made a speech, saying: "Now I will tell you that I think you will live to see the day when railroads will supersede all other methods of conveyance in this country; when mail coaches will go by railway, and railroads will become the great highway for the king and all his subjects. The time will come when it will be cheaper for a working man to travel on a railway than to walk on foot."

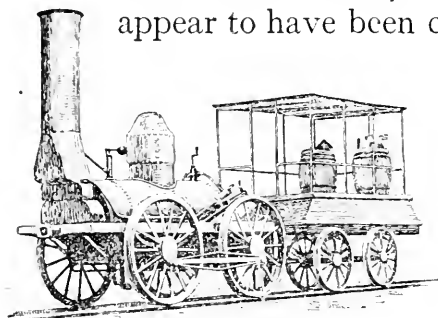
George Stephenson for twenty years sacrificed personal comfort, worked hard, endured ridicule and bitter charges from his enemies to bring about better means of travel on land. He succeeded, and when he declined the offer of knighthood, he said success was reward enough for him.

He built a great locomotive factory at Newcastle, and became a rich man. His son Robert continued the work and made many improvements on the early engines.

America was not far behind England in railroad making. In 1828 the Baltimore and Ohio Company began to build a line, and two years later passengers were carried. Meanwhile, the people of New York were becoming interested in this new method of travel, and in 1831 the Mohawk and Hudson Railroad began to carry passengers between Albany and Schenectady. The rails were at first wooden stringers covered on the top with iron straps, and it was not until some years later that all-iron rails were used. The first

locomotive in service on this road was called the "De Witt Clinton." A part of its driving wheel is in the possession of the Transportation Club in New York city. Other roads were soon built in the state; one extending from New York to Chatham on the eastern side of the Hudson River, others along the western bank of this river in the direction of Albany. These different roads gradually came under one management, and are now divisions of the great New York Central system. The first locomotives were brought from England, but before long those made in America were preferred. In 1835 America had twenty-three railroads and over 1000 miles of track.

Early locomotives were usually personified, and instead of numbers were given names, as, "Puffing Billy," "John Bull," and "The Best Friend of Charleston." They appear to have been chiefly smokestack and a little



Early Locomotive

boiler. The most apparent change since has been a great reduction of the former and enlargement of the latter. The cab for the fireman and engineer has been added in place of the platform on which they formerly used to stand.

At first the cars were just like stagecoaches. Year by year great improvements have been made in the cars, and on some lines to-day one can enjoy all the luxury and conveniences of a perfectly furnished private house. As for speed, little more can be asked when it is possible to go from New York to Chicago, a distance of almost 1000 miles, in eighteen hours, or to San Francisco in less than five days.

Topical Outline. — Boyhood of George Stephenson spent in the mines. Became a fireman and an engineer. Built locomotives. The opposition of the public. The trial trip; his prophecy; his great success. Early railroads in America. Travel by rail to-day.

For Written Work. — I. Make a list of all the benefits you enjoy through the railroads. II. Describe your first ride on a train.

Map Work. — Trace the routes of the early railways in New York state: Albany to Schenectady; New York to Chatham; New York to Albany.

Collateral Reading

History. — Earle, "Home Life in Colonial Days," pp. 325-328; Earle, "Stage Coach and Tavern Days."

Biography. — Hubert, "Inventors," pp. 45-69; Mowry, "American Inventions and Inventors," pp. 194-228; Hart and Chapman, "How Our Grandfathers Lived," pp. 102-104.



Chaise

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, THE FIRST AMERICAN

BOYHOOD AND YOUTH

BEFORE the Revolutionary War was over, many hardy frontiersmen and their families began to find their way through the mountain passes of the Alleghenies and to settle in the fertile country beyond. They were the vanguard of a great army of pioneers who peopled the Mississippi valley.

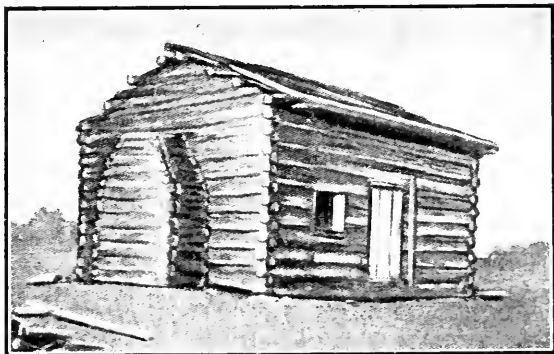
Among these emigrants was a family whose name, in the crude spelling of the times, was sometimes given as Linkhorn and sometimes as Linckorn. From this family was descended our great President, Abraham Lincoln, the man whom our poet Lowell has called "the First American." He was born in a rude log cabin and reared amid the humblest circumstances. Yet he reached the highest position of dignity and honor, and is enshrined with Washington in the hearts of the American people.

Abraham's father, Thomas Lincoln, was the son of a prosperous Kentucky pioneer who came from Virginia as a friend of Daniel Boone.

He purchased large tracts of land in the new country, and was laying the foundation of an estate when he was killed by the Indians. His property was left mainly to the oldest son, and the youngest, Thomas, was left to shift for himself in a young and undeveloped country. Thomas Lincoln had no chance to get an education, but grew to be an honest and temperate man. He had some skill as a carpenter, but was

an indifferent farmer and seemed to care more for hunting and for a wandering existence. Indeed, through all his life he lacked ambition and the ability to conquer difficulties. In 1806 he was married at Beachland, Kentucky, to Nancy Hanks, a slender woman, of medium height, with dark hair and hazel eyes. She is said to have been of a sensitive and somewhat melancholy nature, qualities which her son Abraham inherited. She was also a woman of native refinement and of delicate instincts, a wild flower of the wilderness. Unlike most of her pioneer neighbors, she knew how to read and write, and taught her husband to write his name.

Soon after his marriage, Thomas Lincoln moved to some land on Nolan Creek in Hardin County, and here on the 12th of February, 1809, his son Abraham was born. Very few children to-day have houses as poor and as barren as the one to which this little baby came. It was built of logs or poles and was about fourteen feet square. The one room within had to serve the family for parlor, dining room, bedroom, and kitchen combined. The floor had no carpet, but a bearskin was laid down in cold weather for the baby to play on. At one end of the room was an open fireplace with



Lincoln's Birthplace

a huge chimney. Here Abraham's mother cooked their simple meals. There was an abundance of game such as venison, wild turkey, and pigeons, and these would be broiled over the hot coals or boiled in a large iron kettle hanging from a crane

over the fire. In the coals corn was roasted or corn cakes baked. A few pots and kettles and pewter plates were all the dishes they had. Their table was a board laid upon pegs driven into the wall. A skin of some wild animal would be hung across the doorway in cold weather to take the place of a door. Their chairs were blocks of wood or three-legged stools, and their bed was of poles covered with a bearskin.

As the little baby learned to walk and play about the cabin, his mother made for him trousers of deerskin and a little jacket and shirt of coarse tow cloth which she had woven and spun.

In this simple and primitive life, Abraham grew to be a sturdy boy. When he was four years old, his father moved to Knob Creek, and three years later he moved again. This time he crossed the Ohio and took up some land in Indiana near Little Pigeon Creek, a few miles north of the Ohio River. This was a wild and well-wooded region full of game, and here Thomas Lincoln thought he would be content to establish a home and rear a family. With little Abe's help he built what was called a "half faced camp." It was only a shed of poles, entirely open on one side. The crevices between the poles were filled with leaves and clay mixed together, while before the camp a great log fire was kept burning night and day.

No road reached this rude home except the trail that Lincoln blazed through the woods, and the nearest neighbors were miles away. For a whole year they lived in this open camp while some ground was being cleared and a little crop planted.

During the year, Thomas Lincoln built a log cabin of rough timber, without doors, floor, or windows. Into the half finished house, the family moved the next autumn.

They had the roughest of furniture. A log smoothed on one side was used as a table; the bedsteads were made of poles fastened to the wall and resting on forked sticks; the chairs were log blocks roughly hewn. As in the Kentucky home, there was a fireplace where the simple meals were prepared. The cabin had been built high, so that there was room in the loft. Little Abe's bed was in the loft, and each night he climbed a ladder made of pegs driven into the logs. His bed was not like those to which children to-day are used, for it was made in the rudest fashion with leaves or straw instead of springs, and with the skins of wild animals for coverings. But the little boy, nevertheless, slept soundly, for his life in the open air, clearing the land or tilling the corn, made him so tired at night that any shelter seemed sweet.

When Abraham was nine years old, a great sorrow came into his life. His mother, worn out by the privations and hardships of this frontier life, fell an easy prey to the malaria common in a new country. Her death, away from her childhood home, with no friends near except her own family, seemed doubly sad. In a rough coffin which Thomas Lincoln made from green lumber, she was buried near their cabin. There was no minister to read the burial service, and only the autumn wild flowers to cover the humble grave. Something of the loneliness of this touched little Abe's heart as he grieved for his gentle and patient mother. He thought of a friend who was a wandering preacher in their old home in Kentucky, and he wrote to this friend, whose name was David Elkin, asking him to come to Indiana and preach his mother's funeral sermon. So it was that some months later, David Elkin spoke a few words of comfort above the grave of Lincoln's mother.

But there was soon to come into Abraham's life a woman of a stronger nature, who had much to do with shaping the character of the growing boy. This woman was Sarah Johnson, a widow whom Thomas Lincoln married a few months after the death of his first wife. She braced up her shiftless husband, and made him complete the cabin which he had left half-finished so long. She was a blessing to the forlorn little family. With her accustomed thrift and energy she took charge of the children as well as the husband. She fed and clothed them well, and made them more comfortable than they had ever been before.

She seems to have been especially fond of Abraham, and to have won his affection by her kindness and tender care. When Lincoln said, in after years, "All that I am or hope to be I owe to my angel mother," it is probable that he referred not to his own mother but to this woman who treated him with such motherly tenderness. It was to her, and not to his ignorant father, that he owed his scanty schooling. She kindled in him an ambition to make something of himself. She sympathized with his love for study and for reading. How well he repaid her for her kindly care is shown by what she said of him after he became famous: "Abe never gave me a cross word or look, and never refused to do anything I required of him. He was the best boy I ever saw."

She insisted that he should be sent to school as soon as there was one to attend. Back in Kentucky he had occasionally in the summer days trudged with his sister to a school kept by Caleb Hazel. The master taught reading, writing, and ciphering after a fashion, but his chief qualification was his ability to whip the big boys.

The first Indiana school Lincoln attended was taught by Hazel Dorsey. It was a rough-hewn cabin with a floor of

split logs and with windows made by covering holes in the walls with oiled paper. The only desk was a shelf near the door where the children could stand and trace their copies. The benches were made of logs split in halves and mounted upon pegs. In this and in other rude schoolhouses, Abraham Lincoln got all the schooling he ever had. It was pitifully irregular, for he was often taken out to help with the farm



A Log Schoolhouse

work. It was not always possible, either, in this wilderness country, to find a wandering schoolmaster who was able or willing to teach in the little log schoolhouse.

In the winter of 1822-1823 Abe again attended school for a few months, and in 1826, when he was nearly seventeen years old, he saw his last school days under a master named Swaney, who held sway in a deserted cabin four and one half miles from Lincoln's home. In all, Lincoln's school

days did not exceed a year, under teachers who had scarcely more than the rudiments of education. So you see that Lincoln was correct when he described his early training in the brief statement, "Education defective."

Had he been content with this, it is not probable that he would have risen much above the level of his boyhood companions. But in some mysterious way he had developed a passion for reading. Books in that frontier region were scarce, but such as he had or could borrow, Lincoln eagerly read and thoroughly learned. "Æsop's Fables" improved his native art of story-telling. "Robinson Crusoe," Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," and especially the Bible, enriched his mind and formed his taste. A history of the United States, the "Life of Henry Clay," and Weems's "Life of Washington" gave him some knowledge of the history of our country and of its great men.

The "Life of Washington" seemed to impress him more than the literary qualities of the work merited. It may be that he valued the book so highly because it was the first one he ever owned. He borrowed it from a neighbor and sat up late at night reading it by the light of a tallow candle. When the candle burned out, Abraham tucked the book into a crevice of the wall where it would be ready for him when daylight came. He was awakened by the patter of rain on the roof, and found that the storm had beaten into the crevice and damaged the book so that it could not be returned. Its owner agreed to give it to the boy in return for three days' labor. In this way, Abraham earned his first book.

A boy who was willing to do this was sure to succeed in his efforts to get an education. It is not surprising, therefore, to find him eagerly reading whenever opportunity afforded, or, at night after the day's work was done, studying by the light

of a log fire. Paper was scarce, so he used to write with chalk on the cabin walls, or figure with a bit of charcoal on the wooden fire shovel. This he could whittle clean and fill with figures, again and again.

And so with much hard work, some study, and some play — for he was always fond of shooting, wrestling matches, and other rough frontier sports — Lincoln grew to young manhood. When he was nineteen years of age, he made his



Lincoln studying by Firelight

first trip to New Orleans on a flatboat. This long journey in a new country, among strange scenes and peoples, broadened his mind and added to the store of knowledge he was slowly accumulating.

He continued to work for his father or for the neighbors until he was nearly twenty-one years of age. Then Thomas Lincoln, discouraged by another epidemic of malaria, and hearing of cheaper and more fertile lands toward the west,

determined to move again. Packing all their household goods into a long covered wagon, with Abraham driving the oxen, they started on the tedious journey. After two weeks they reached Illinois and located on the Sangamon River, about ten miles west of Decatur.

Abraham was now of age and his time was his own, but he remained to help his father get settled. He aided in clearing the land and in fencing a part of it with rails which he split from logs. He helped in building the new cabin home, and in planting the spring crops. Then he began to look for work for himself. But first of all he needed some clothes, for he still wore the buckskin garments of the frontiersman. So he bargained with a neighbor, Mrs. Nancy Miller, to make him a pair of trousers. He was to split 400 fence rails for every yard of "brown Jeans dyed with white walnut bark" she wove for the trousers. As he was unusually tall he had to split 1400 rails before the clothes were earned.

He had at this time nearly reached his growth. Although very tall and slender, he had a rugged constitution. His outdoor life gave him great strength, and his skill in boxing and wrestling was unusual even in a section where physical prowess was common. He earned a reputation for honesty, as well as for courage, and won friends readily in the new home. In 1831 he made his second trip to New Orleans with a boat load of provisions and stock. It was at this time that he first came in close contact with the evils of slavery. He saw gangs of slaves chained and driven through the streets like cattle; he saw them cruelly whipped and sold in the slave market; he saw families separated and children heartlessly taken away from their parents. Naturally kind-hearted, these sights depressed him greatly, and he said to his companion, "If I ever get a chance to hit slavery, I'll hit it hard."

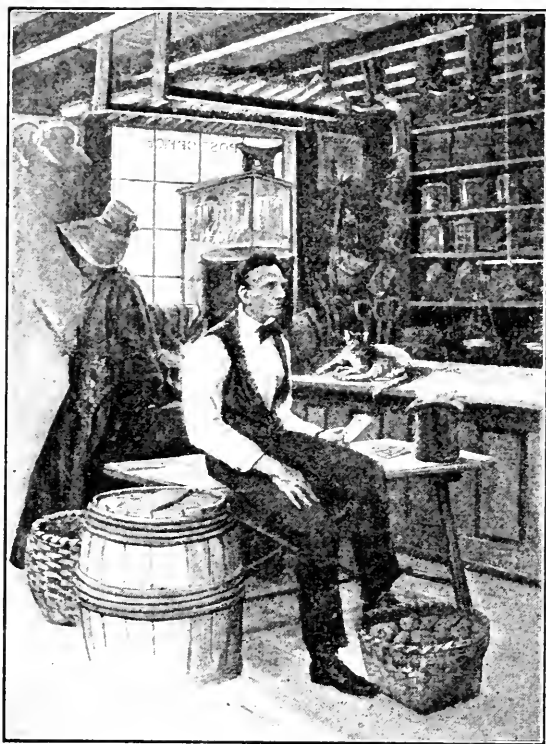
After his return from New Orleans, Lincoln worked as a clerk in the village store in New Salem, Illinois. He soon became a favorite among the villagers. He was a famous story-teller, and his skill as a wrestler won for him the respect of the rougher element of the town. Here also he gained a reputation for uprightness and for square dealing in business matters, so that the people soon began to call him "Honest Abe." Without doubt, this title pleased him more than all the admiration of his physical strength.

During his leisure hours, Lincoln continued his studious habits. He became interested in politics, and, in order to be able to speak and write correctly, determined to study grammar. The only text-book in the neighborhood was a copy of "Kirkham's English Grammar," owned by an old schoolmaster who lived six miles out of town. Lincoln willingly walked there and back in order to borrow and study the book.

In 1832 an Indian war under the leadership of the chief Black Hawk broke out, and Lincoln was made captain of a company of volunteers raised in Sangamon County to aid in subduing the Indians. The campaign was brief, and at its close Lincoln returned to New Salem. With a partner he opened a grocery store there. But this venture did not prove successful. His partner drank, and Lincoln's mind was on his studies more than on his business. So between the two men their enterprise was neglected, and soon failed. The partner died soon after, and left Lincoln responsible for the debts of the firm. They were so large that he afterwards referred to them as the "national debt." It was not until many years afterward that he was able to pay the last of these debts.

To support himself after the failure of the store, and to give

him money to continue the study of law, Lincoln secured employment as a surveyor. He was also for a number of years postmaster at New Salem. In a barrel which he purchased while keeping



Lincoln as Storekeeper

store, he found a set of law books called Blackstone's "Commentaries." He became greatly interested in these and in other law books which he borrowed from a friend in Springfield whom he had met during the Black Hawk War. In order to gain experience in practice, he drew deeds, contracts, and other legal papers for his neighbors. He also con-

ducted small cases in the justice's court, and, in due season, was ready to practice his profession.

During this period of study and business, Lincoln showed an increasing interest in public affairs. It was a time when great issues in our national affairs were at stake. The Whig party was growing in power, and its leaders, Webster and Clay, were making eloquent speeches in the United States Senate in support of national unity. Lincoln, ever since his boyhood days, had been an admirer of Clay. That statesman's life was one of the first books he had read as a child,

and when he became a man he was an ardent admirer of the great Kentucky orator. The "Louisville Journal," a paper controlled by Clay, was one of the influential newspapers of the West, and Lincoln was a constant reader of this journal. In this way he kept himself informed regarding the political questions of the day. He was naturally a politician, rather than a business man, and his friends showed their confidence in him by electing him four times to the Illinois legislature. His career as a legislator during these eight years was not especially important, although it gave him an opportunity to take a courageous stand against slavery. The legislature passed a strong proslavery resolution against the opposition of Lincoln and one other member. In the protest which he signed, he said that he believed the institution of slavery to be founded on both injustice and bad policy. Thus early in his public career he took a firm stand on the right side of a great moral issue.

LINCOLN THE LAWYER

During his legislative career, Lincoln removed to Springfield, the capital of the state. Here he formed a law partnership, under the firm name of Stuart and Lincoln, with the friend who had helped him in his legal studies. Both men were well known in that section, and they soon built up a fine practice. Stuart was actively engaged in political matters, and left much of the law business of the firm to his partner. Lincoln's success as a lawyer was due to his absolute honesty and the confidence in him which this trait inspired, rather than to any profound knowledge of the law. He would refuse any case that he believed to be wrong. Often after he had commenced a suit, when he found that the law or the evidence was on the other side, he would withdraw from the case. A

fellow lawyer said of him, "Love of justice and fair play was his predominant trait. It was not in his nature to assume or attempt to bolster up a false position; he would abandon his case first."

It is not strange, therefore, that he became known throughout the state, as he had been known in the little village of New Salem, as "Honest Abe." The firm of Stuart and Lincoln was dissolved after four years, and Lincoln in 1843 took William H. Herndon as his partner. This firm remained in existence until Lincoln's death. For years much of their practice was in the circuit courts which the judges held in different parts of the state. In order to try their cases, the lawyers traveled from place to place as court was moved. This was called "riding the circuit." Lincoln, with the others, was accustomed to do this year after year, and in this way built up a large acquaintanceship throughout the state. Circuit riding in those days was not an easy task. The roads in stormy weather were almost impassable; sometimes there were only trails; the streams were without bridges and often swollen; and the accommodations at the country taverns were meager. But these experiences in a new country brought him home to the hearts of the common people. He knew them, for he was one of them, and this knowledge helped to guide him when he became their great leader.

Many stories are told of his kindness of heart at this period as well as throughout his life. He sympathized with the unfortunate and the oppressed. He often took cases when he had no expectation of being paid a fee. He could be as tender as a woman to misfortune and suffering. He was fond of children and dumb animals, once even going out of his way to put some young birds back in their nest. One of his most eloquent appeals for justice was in a suit where he

prosecuted a pension agent for cheating a poor widow. Some one has said that "No one ever accused him of taking an unfair or underhanded advantage in the whole course of his professional career."

It seems strange that such a tender-hearted and kindly natured man as Lincoln could not have won complete happiness for himself. But he was given to fits of brooding and of melancholy, and through all his life was a lonely man among a multitude of friends.

In 1842 Lincoln met and married Mary Todd. He was a faithful husband and a good father, but his wife never fully understood him, and his home life was full of trials. Their home in Springfield was an ordinary frame house, where they lived simply and quietly. Indeed, even to the time that he was elected President of the United States, Lincoln did all of the outdoor work about the place — milked the cow, cared for the horse, and chopped the wood for the kitchen fire. His life was in no way different from that of his less noted neighbors. His dress was as simple as were his habits of life. In cold weather he wore an old gray shawl about his shoulders. The nap on his "stove pipe" hat was usually rubbed the wrong way, and his boots were unpolished. He often carried a faded green umbrella with a string tied about its middle. As he rode the circuit in his old open buggy or on horseback, he carried his legal papers in the pockets of his saddle, or in a dilapidated carpetbag.

But with all this uncouthness of dress and of manner, there was an unselfishness and a gentleness in his homely and rugged face that drew all men to him. And when, in after years, the burdens and the sorrows of the Civil War were thrust upon him, his countenance seemed to reflect all the pity and the pathos of that dreadful struggle.

LINCOLN THE POLITICIAN

Lincoln had gained some experience in political life during the eight years he served in the Illinois legislature. After its close he continued to practice law at Springfield until, in 1846, he was elected to Congress. Here he gained some reputation as a clear and logical speaker, as a loyal member of the Whig party, and as an opponent of the extension of slavery. He took the position that the Mexican War, then being fought, had been forced upon Mexico by the President solely for the purpose of acquiring more slaveholding territory. In his famous "Spot Resolutions," he called upon the President to put his finger on the spot where, as the President said, Mexico had shed American blood upon American soil. He voted also in favor of the Wilmot Proviso, a measure intended to prohibit slavery in any territory acquired from Mexico.

Returning to his home after this term in Congress, Lincoln says of himself, "I was losing interest in politics when the repeal of the Missouri Compromise aroused me again." You have been told in the life of Henry Clay what this measure was and how it was expected to settle forever the question of the extension of slavery. But the thirty years following its adoption were years of marked western expansion. Great tides of emigration flowed largely from the northern states into the territory west of the Mississippi River. This was especially true after the discovery, in 1848, of gold in California. The southern statesmen had hoped that most of the territory won from Mexico at the close of the Mexican War would become slaveholding states. In this, however, they were disappointed, for the greater number of the western pioneers were northern men, and opposed to the institution of

slavery. So when California, in 1850, sought admission into the Union as a free state, the southern members of Congress were bitterly opposed. Clay's Compromise Bill of 1850 aimed to quiet this discord and to satisfy both sections by admitting California as a free state, and by providing that the other land acquired from Mexico should be organized as territories without any reference to the question of slavery. This meant that the settlers there would be free to decide the matter for themselves when the time came for the creation of states from these territories.

Neither the North nor the South was satisfied with this measure. It left the question of whether slavery was morally and economically right or wrong as much unsettled as it had been before. The agitation was renewed when Stephen A. Douglas, in 1854, introduced in Congress a bill to organize two territories, Kansas and Nebraska, out of that great section of the Louisiana Purchase north of the parallel of $36^{\circ} 30'$, and west of the states of Missouri and Iowa. This measure, known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, swept away all the restrictions regarding slavery which were contained in the Missouri Compromise. It established the doctrine of state sovereignty — that a state might decide for itself whether it would be a free or a slaveholding state.

Immediately after the passage of the bill, a struggle began between the North and the South for the possession of Kansas. Each side tried to get a majority for the first territorial election there. Slaveholding settlers, "border ruffians" they were sometimes called, from Missouri and other southern states, crossed over into the territory. In the North, too, emigration societies were formed to raise money and to hurry settlers to Kansas. Among these emigrants was one John Brown and his stalwart sons, all haters of

slavery, and destined to become famous at Harpers Ferry in 1859, when they seized the United States arsenal there and endeavored to arouse a rebellion among the slaves in Virginia. It is not strange that these two classes of settlers soon clashed, and that a very bitter and bloody little war broke out in Kansas between them. The struggle lasted for years, but in the end Kansas was admitted as a free state.

Bitter feeling was also greatly intensified by the attempt during these exciting years to enforce the Fugitive Slave Law. This was a law of Congress by which negroes who had escaped could be arrested and returned to their owners. Several of the northern states refused to allow this law to be enforced within their borders, and abolitionists aided runaway slaves to escape into Canada by means of the so-called underground railroads. Then came the famous Dred Scott decision of the United States Supreme Court. Scott was a negro who had been taken by his master from Missouri, a slave state, into a free state. Upon their return to Missouri, Scott sued for his freedom on the ground that having lived in a free state he was a free man. The court decided against him, and the decision meant, of course, that southern slaveholders could take their negroes anywhere in the Union and still hold them as slaves. Such an interpretation of the law alarmed the northern people greatly, for it meant, if put into practice, the indefinite extension of slavery.

These vital issues which tried men's souls served also to break down old party lines. The Whig party, some one humorously said, "died of an attempt to swallow the Omnibus Bill," as the Compromise of 1850 was sometimes called. Its neutral attitude regarding the extension of slavery pleased neither its northern nor its southern members. New parties

such as the "Free Soilers," the "Anti-Nebraska Democrats," and the "Americans" sprang into life.

Gradually these organizations drew more closely together. They differed in minor matters, but had a common bond of sympathy in their opposition to the further extension of slavery. So from these various elements the Republican party was formed. It grew rapidly, and in the election of 1856, the first presidential campaign in which it engaged, polled over a million votes.

In Illinois, Abraham Lincoln at once became the recognized leader of the new party, and was its candidate for United States Senator from that state. In the speech which he made, upon accepting the nomination, he said regarding the preservation of the Union, "'A house divided against itself' cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved. I do not expect the house to fall — but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other."

Then followed a masterly statement of the principles of his party and a review of the measures by which the proslavery statesmen sought to dominate the political life of the nation. In closing, he voiced his belief in the justice of his cause and in the ultimate success of the right. "The result is not doubtful," he said; "if we stand firm, we shall not fail — sooner or later the victory is sure to come."

His opponent in the campaign which followed was Stephen A. Douglas. During the campaign, the rival candidates spoke in a series of joint debates throughout the state of Illinois. The "Lincoln-Douglas Debates," as they were called, are perhaps the greatest series of campaign speeches the political history of this country has known. Douglas

was the most brilliant leader in the Democratic party. He was a man of national reputation, of charming personality, a successful politician, and a skillful debater. Mr. Lincoln, on the other hand, lacked most of the characteristics of a great orator. He was tall and awkward, and his voice was shrill and piping. But his intense earnestness, his simple yet resistless logic, and his belief in the righteousness of his cause, carried conviction to the minds of his hearers.

In one of the debates, Douglas asserted that the Declara-

tion of Independence did not include the negroes when it declared that "all men are created equal." Lincoln replying said: "I do not understand the Declaration of Independence to mean that all men were created equal in all respects. They are not equal in color. But I believe that it does mean to declare that all men are equal in some respects; they are equal in their right to life, liberty, and the



Stephen A. Douglas

pursuit of happiness." Blaine said that Lincoln did not seek to emphasize in these speeches the thing that was for the day only, but the thing which would stand the test of time and square itself with eternal justice.

As a result of the campaign, Douglas was elected to the Senate. But these debates gave Lincoln a wide reputation as an orator and statesman. To this reputation he added afterwards by some masterly speeches in New York and in other eastern cities. He became a figure of national impor-

tance, and was looked upon by many as an available candidate for the Presidency.

LINCOLN THE PRESIDENT

Lincoln was soon to reap his reward for his forceful statement of lofty moral principles, for when the time came, in 1860, to elect another President, the Republican party presented his name as its candidate. The Democrats were hopelessly divided, and the Republicans had high hopes of success at the polls. The people of the South feared Lincoln's election, for they had gained the impression that he and the party he represented were pledged to the abolition of slavery, and they felt that this meant ruin for them. That they were mistaken in their conception of Lincoln's attitude is certain. He was determined to save the Union at any cost, and to prevent the further extension of slavery, but he expressly and repeatedly stated that he did not intend to interfere with slavery in the states where it was already established. However, this misconception of Lincoln's attitude was only one of the causes for the differences of opinion between the two great sections of our country.

Most of the commercial activity and business enterprise was centered in the northern and central western states. The South, on the other hand, with its great resources of mine and forest undeveloped, was essentially an agricultural country.

The doctrine of state rights had for years been instilled into the minds of the southern people by their leaders, while the North believed more firmly than ever before in the sacredness and integrity of the Union under the Constitution. In social conditions, in systems of labor and education, and in policies of government, the two sections had never been in

harmony, and the breach rapidly widened after Lincoln's election. Some of the southern states threatened to secede if Lincoln were chosen President, and immediately they proceeded to carry out this threat.

South Carolina, always the foremost advocate of state rights, was the first to act. In December, 1860, she declared that she no longer owed allegiance to the United States. Other southern states soon followed, and in February, 1861, formed at Montgomery, Alabama, the "Confederate States of America." The states thus in rebellion were South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. To these were added, later, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Arkansas, making eleven states in rebellion. The break which men had feared so long had come! The day for compromise was past! Henceforth the great issues that had been so bitterly discussed in legislative halls and in the press, were to be fought out in the field. It was to be now an appeal to arms and to the God of battles.

Although Lincoln had been elected in November of 1860, it was not until March of the following year that he was inaugurated. In the meantime, the rebellious states actively prepared for war. United States arsenals and arms were seized, troops were raised, and fortifications prepared, while the northern government made no effort to protect itself.

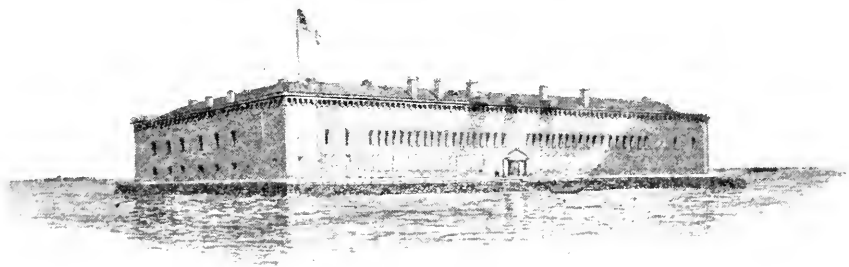
Lincoln remained quietly at home, waiting for the time when, as President of the United States, he would endeavor to preserve the Union. On the day before he left Springfield for Washington, he went to his office to say good-by to his partner. When the time came for them to part, he said to Mr. Herndon, "Billy, how long have we been together?"

"Over sixteen years," he answered.

"We've never had a cross word during all that time,

have we?" said Lincoln. Then he asked that the office sign which hung on its rusty hinges at the foot of the stairs be undisturbed, saying, "The election of a President makes no change in the firm of Lincoln and Herndon. If I live, I am coming back sometime, and then we'll go right on practicing law as if nothing had happened."

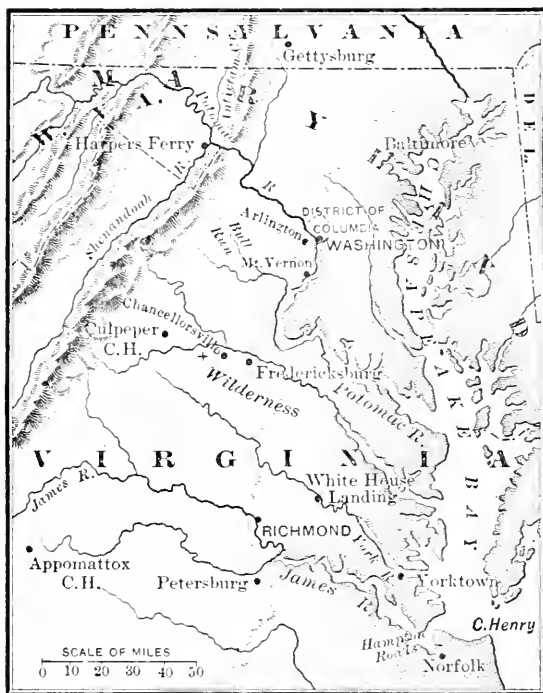
The next day he left his home to assume responsibilities greater than any which had ever before confronted a President of the United States. But he did not falter in his task, nor fail in any way to do his duty. The solemn oath he took on the 4th of March, 1861, to uphold the Constitution and to preserve, protect, and defend the government, was never broken. When actual war was begun by the attack upon Fort Sumter, a fort held by United States troops in



Fort Sumter

the harbor of Charleston, S. C. (April 12, 1861), he called for seventy-five thousand volunteers to suppress the rebellion and to enforce the laws. The response was instantaneous. When the news flashed over the wires that the American flag had been fired upon and that Fort Sumter had fallen, the whole North was aroused. The men whom southern politicians said were too selfish or too cowardly to fight, rushed by thousands to uphold the Stars and Stripes.

Both sides in their enthusiasm thought that the war would be of short duration, each underestimating the strength and determination of its opponent. The South, impatient to end the war, urged its soldiers to press forward and capture Washington. The North, also confident of victory, cried, "On to Richmond! On to Richmond!" It was not until the two



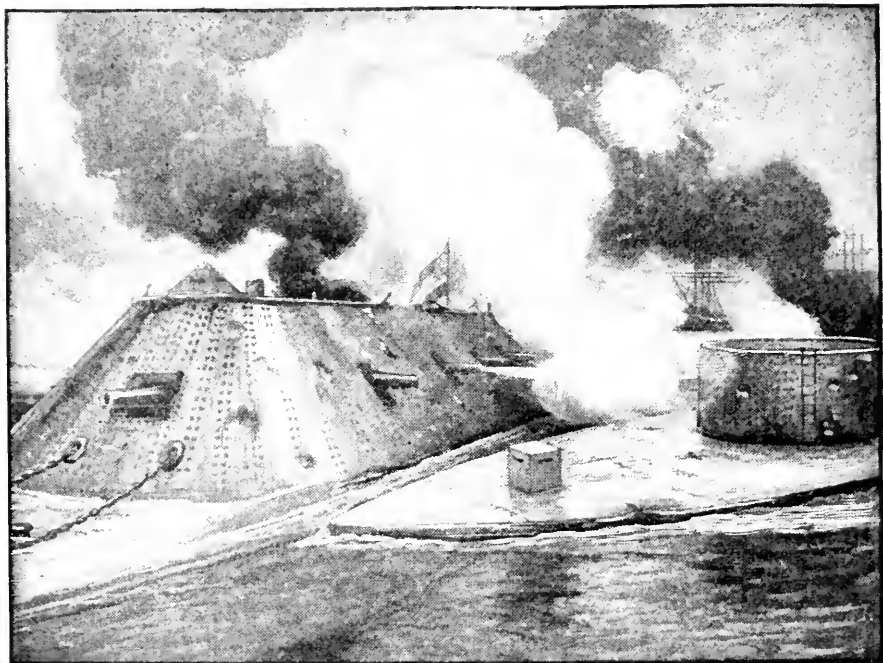
Country around Washington

armies met on the field of Bull Run and measured each other's strength that they realized the desperate character of the struggle. The Union troops, defeated in this battle, were driven back upon Washington. Congress, alarmed at the disaster, awoke to the fact that more troops were needed; that it took time to equip and discipline an army.

At once Congress voted to raise five hundred million dollars and five hundred thousand men for three years or until the war was ended. As the soldiers enlisted and marched to the front in response to their country's call, there rose from village and farm, from every city and town the stirring battle cry, "We are coming, Father Abraham, five hundred thousand strong!"

Plans for the prosecution of the war were gradually shaping themselves under the direction and guidance of Lincoln.

As commander in chief of the army and navy, he had charge of the selection of officers, the maintenance of the army, and the general military movements. There was to be a three-fold campaign: First, the Mississippi was to be opened and the Confederacy split in half. Second, Richmond was to be attacked. Third, the southern seaports were to be blockaded in order that the South might not send its cotton to Europe and



The Merrimac and the Monitor

receive in return money and supplies from foreign ports. Grant accomplished the first of these objects in 1863, when Vicksburg surrendered to him; Richmond did not fall until the war was practically ended; but the blockade was immediately effective.

The battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* was an interesting incident of this blockade. It was important, also, because it revolutionized naval warfare. A fleet of wooden

warships was stationed in Hampton Roads, at the mouth of the James River. Against them the Confederates sent the *Merrimac*, a wooden vessel sheathed with iron plates and fitted with a huge iron prow. Shot and shell had no effect against the monster "ironclad," and she was rapidly making havoc with the Union fleet, when the *Monitor* appeared. This strange looking craft was a new Union "ironclad," invented by John Ericsson and recently completed in the Brooklyn navy yard. She was simply a hull with a revolving tower in the center, protected by heavy armor plate. The Confederates called her in derision the "Yankee cheese box," but in the sea duel between the two monsters, the *Monitor* drove the *Merrimac* to shelter, saved the rest of the Union fleet, and maintained the blockade.

After a second victory at Bull Run, the Confederates determined to invade the North. The Union general, McClellan, had failed in what is known as the Peninsular Campaign, and the Confederate troops, flushed with victory, pressed forward eagerly into Maryland. Here at Sharpsburg, on Antietam Creek, a battle was fought (September 17, 1862) and their advance checked. President Lincoln awaited the result of this battle with intense anxiety, for he felt that it might decide the fate of the Union. He saw that the people of the whole country now realized — as he had long ago — that the evil of slavery was at the root of the rebellion. Lincoln said he had promised God that if the Union forces were victorious at Antietam, he would free the slaves. Accordingly, on the first of January, 1863, Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, proclaiming all the slaves in the states then in rebellion, free. This historic measure made Lincoln immortal, and hastened the end of the war.

The two great military events of 1863 were the surrender

of Vicksburg and the defeat of the Confederate army under Lee at Gettysburg. Both occurred at almost the same time, early in the month of July. How the capture of Vicksburg was accomplished, and how it brought to the front a new military leader, will be told more fully in the life of Grant. The battle of Gettysburg was the turning point of the war. Never again, after Gettysburg, did Confederate armies seek to invade the North. Step by step, losing ground



Lincoln reading the Emancipation Proclamation to his Cabinet

day by day, they fought, now always upon the defensive, until they surrendered at Appomattox (April 9, 1865) and the war was ended.

It had been a terrible struggle. For four long dismal years, the brave men of the South and of the North had fought, each section believing in the righteousness and justice of its cause. Through it all, our great President had borne the burdens of his high office with patience and with a stead-

fast courage. "With malice toward none and with charity for all" he followed the path of duty until he saved the nation. His clouded brow relaxed, his wearied face grew calm as he looked forward to the days of peace. Already his great heart was planning to bind up the nation's wounds and to establish firmly a reunited country, when the end suddenly came. On the evening of April 14, 1865, as Lincoln sat with his wife in a box in Ford's Theater in



Ford's Theater, Washington

Washington, he was shot by an assassin. The bullet, passing through the brain, left him unconscious, and he died the next morning.

Flags that had been flying in triumph were lowered to half-mast in sorrow. Amid the tears of the nation and the pro-

found grief of the world, he was laid to rest in his old home at Springfield. In his death, the nation lost its greatest hero; in his death, the South lost its most just friend. His life is an inspiration to humanity. Roosevelt voices its lesson to America when he says, "All of us alike, Northerners and Southerners, Easterners and Westerners, can best prove our fealty to the Nation's past by the way in which we do the Nation's work in the present: for only thus can we be sure that our children's children shall inherit Abraham Lincoln's single-hearted devotion to the great unchanging creed that 'righteousness exalteth a Nation.'"

Topical Outline. — Lincoln's early life; his ancestry; his homes; his schools; the influence of his stepmother upon his career. Lincoln's

life in Illinois; his trips to New Orleans; his studies and occupations; how he fitted himself for public affairs. Lincoln the lawyer and politician: legislative career; professional and home life at Springfield; service in Congress. Lincoln the statesman and hero: growth of slavery agitation; measures which aroused the North; the Lincoln-Douglas debates; Lincoln's election as President; why the North and the South failed to understand each other; Civil War; death.

For Written Work. — I. Write a story about Lincoln's early life in Illinois. II. Imagine yourself a playmate of Lincoln's; tell the story of a day's visit at his home. III. Describe the Lincoln-Douglas debates, or describe the sea-duel between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*. IV. What was Lincoln's greatest act as President? V. Why do you admire the character of Lincoln?

Map Work. — Locate Springfield, Illinois (p. 304); Fort Sumter, Washington, Richmond, Antietam, Hampton Roads, Gettysburg.

Collateral Reading

History. — Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," pp. 1-112; Kieffer, "Recollections of a Drummer Boy."

Biography. — Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 193-210; Baldwin, "Abraham Lincoln"; Brooks, "True Story of Lincoln"; Tarbell, "Life of Lincoln"; Moore, "Life of Lincoln"; Tarbell, "He Knew Lincoln"; Lincoln, Last Paragraph of Second Inaugural; Nicolay, "The Boy's Life of Abraham Lincoln"; Cravens, "Story of Lincoln."

Poetry. — Howe, "Battle Hymn of the Republic"; Whittier, "Barbara Frietchie"; Markham, "Lincoln, the Great Commoner"; Whitman, "O Captain, My Captain"; Stevenson, "Poems of American History."

Fiction. — Churchill, "The Crisis"; Butterworth, "Boyhood of Lincoln"; Andrews, "The Perfect Tribute"; Gerry, "The Toy Shop."

GRANT, THE SILENT LEADER

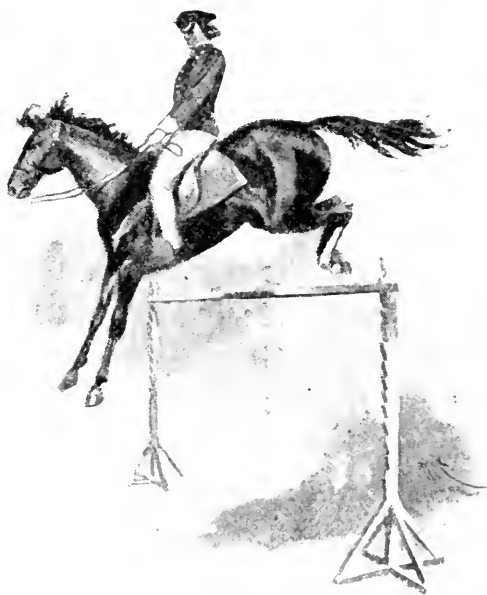
HIRAM ULYSSES GRANT, the great commander of the Civil War, was of New England descent. His ancestors, for generations, had been sober, God-fearing people, of simple habits and of sturdy courage. There had been soldiers and pioneers among them, brave men and loyal women, sound stuff out of which to build a nation. On his mother's side was good Scotch blood. Indeed, many of the qualities of mind which made him famous, he inherited from his mother. The Grant home was at Point Pleasant, on the Ohio River, near Cincinnati.

Here on April 27, 1822, the subject of this sketch was born. His father, Jesse Grant, was a farmer and tanner in comfortable circumstances. The year after the birth of Ulysses, the family moved to Georgetown. Mr. Grant prospered in the new home and lived there many years. Life in this Ohio village then was not much different from what it is to-day in thousands of quiet villages throughout the country. There was no great wealth in the community, nor was there extreme poverty. Every one lived simply and quietly. Among such fortunate surroundings, Grant's boyhood days were spent.

He grew to be a sturdy, self-reliant lad, attended school regularly, and was taught to do his share of the daily work at home and on the farm. He says of himself, "When I was seven or eight years of age, I began hauling all the wood used in the house and shops. When about eleven years old, I was strong enough to hold a plow. From that age until

seventeen, I did all the work done with horses. I did not like to work; but I did as much of it as grown men can be hired to do in these days, and attended school at the same time." His sports were equally simple and wholesome. Fishing, hunting, and swimming in the summer, and skating and sleighing in the winter, made the days and years pass swiftly and happily. Even as a child he knew and loved horses, and spent many of his leisure hours on horseback, riding usually without a saddle. His parents governed him kindly but firmly, and he was always an obedient son. This home training and this outdoor life made him a clean-minded, strong-muscled boy ready for the work of a man.

When Ulysses was seventeen years of age, his father obtained for him an appointment as a cadet in the United States Military Academy at West Point. The boy did not want to go, but obeyed his father. When he arrived at the Academy he found that, through an error, his name had been given in the papers filed with his appointment, as Ulysses Simpson Grant. After trying for some time to have this mistake righted, he adopted the new name, and used it thereafter.



Grant at West Point

During the four years at West Point, young Grant did not distinguish himself as a student, except in his mathematical

studies. His early experience with horses, however, now proved valuable, and he became one of the expert horsemen among the students.

In 1843 Grant finished his military training and began his service as a second lieutenant in the regular army. He was stationed at Jefferson Barracks near the city of St. Louis, and entered at once upon the routine of garrison duty and camp life. It was not long, however, before he was called upon for more active service. Texas had seceded from the republic of Mexico, and had formed an independent government. In 1845 the "Lone Star Republic," as she was called, was admitted into the United States. But in the annexation of Texas we annexed also her quarrel with Mexico over the boundary line between the two countries. Troops were ordered to the frontier, and before long, war was declared. Grant, like most men of the North, thought that the war was unjust; that it had been forced upon Mexico by southern politicians in their greed for more slaveholding territory. But he was a soldier, and it was his duty to obey. His first battle was on the frontier at Palo Alto, under General Taylor as the commander of the American forces. But it was at Monterey that Grant distinguished himself as a brave soldier under fire. During the progress of the battle, ammunition for a part of the army gave out. Volunteers were called for, to ride across the bullet-swept city with orders for a fresh supply. Grant was the first to respond. Clinging to his horse, with his body on the unexposed side, with one leg thrown over the saddle and with his arms clasped around the horse's neck, Indian fashion, he rode swiftly across the lines and delivered his orders.

The next year Grant was with General Scott in the march from the sea against the city of Mexico. In the movements

which culminated in the surrender of that city, Grant again showed the stuff he was made of by seizing a church overlooking the city and by dragging a small cannon up into its belfry. He was able from this elevation to throw shot and shell into the camp of the enemy. Grant's heart was not in this war, although, as we have seen, he did his duty bravely and efficiently. The war, however, was a valuable training for him, and for many others, for the more serious struggle of later years. His letters home at this time did not have much to say about battles or the dark side of the conflict, but were full of his admiration for the strange sights in this wonderful country — the tropical forests on the mountain sides, the many-colored birds and flowers, and the mighty ruins of buried races.

After the war was ended Grant returned to St. Louis, where he married Miss Julia Dent. For a time they were stationed at Detroit and at Sacketts Harbor, New York, an army post on the eastern end of Lake Ontario. From there he was transferred to the Pacific coast. It was out of the question to take his wife and young child on the long trip across the continent, so they were left with his father in Ohio. For nearly three years he was separated from his family. Unable to endure longer the loneliness of this separation, he resigned and came home in July, 1854. The outlook was gloomy. On his meager pay as an army officer, he had been able to save nothing. Now, at the age of thirty-two, with no money, with no profession, except the one from which he had just resigned, with no practical business experience, and with a wife and children to support, he had to start life afresh. He began as a farmer on some land near St. Louis which his wife's father gave him.

Here he worked patiently and faithfully, but the climate

was bad; he became ill and was obliged to sell the farm. He next tried to establish himself as a real-estate agent in St. Louis, but failed. There came a time when he walked the streets of the city looking for work. These were the darkest days of his life. Modest, reticent, and unassuming, he was almost crushed by this experience. Other men regarded him as a failure, and he almost believed that their judgment was correct. He finally secured employment as a clerk in his father's store at Galena, Illinois, and was there when the Civil War commenced.

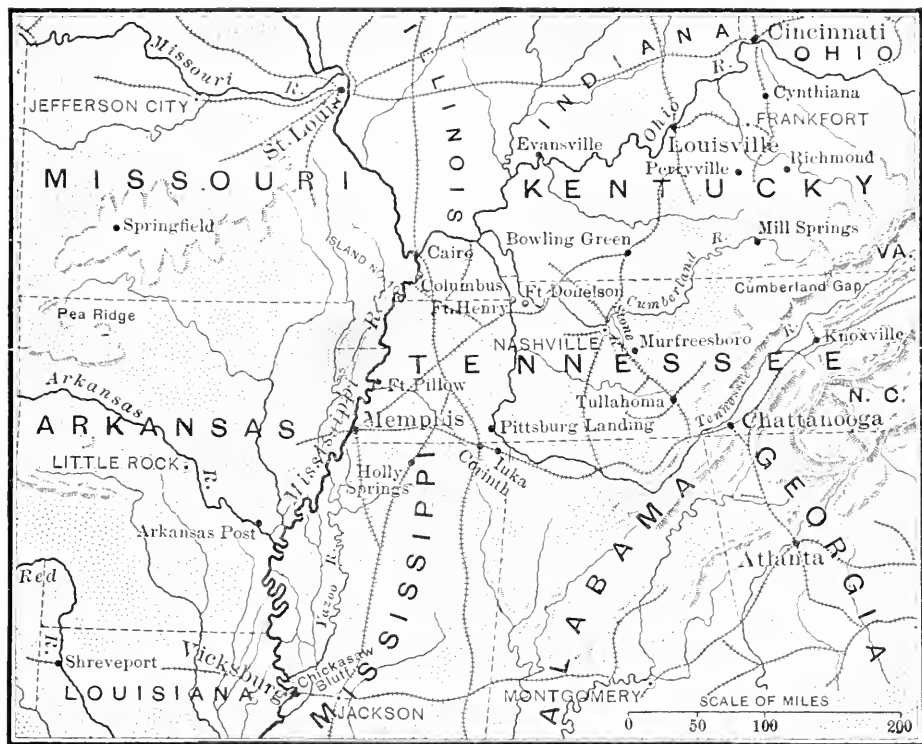
THE SILENT GENERAL

We must not gain the impression that Grant failed in business through neglect or wrong-dealing on his part. He was frugal and industrious, and in all his relations with others honest and generous. But the fifteen years of army life had unfitted him for anything else.

While he was a farmer and business man, he watched the country drift toward the Civil War. He had lived in a section of the country where slavery existed, and his wife's family were slaveowners. He felt that a great conflict between the two sections of his country was sure to come. At once upon the declaration of war, he offered his services to his country. He refused the captaincy of a volunteer company in Galena, but was soon appointed by Governor Yates as colonel of the Twenty-first regiment of Illinois volunteers.

Grant's time had come; the work he was fitted to do was before him. He said little, but he worked hard. Soon his regiment was a model of discipline and efficiency, and he was, as a result, promoted to a brigadier generalship. The war in the West commenced now in earnest. The Confederates held a strong defensive line extending from forts on the

Mississippi River at Columbus and Island No. 10 eastward along the border of Kentucky and Tennessee to the Cumberland Mountains. Two of the strongest positions on this line were Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. The capture of these forts was the first movement in the Union campaign to gain con-



War in the West, 1862

trol of the Mississippi River. Accordingly, early in 1862, Grant, in command of the land forces, and Foote, in command of the gunboats, moved against Fort Henry.

The fleet silenced the guns of the fort, and the Confederate forces withdrew to Ft. Donelson. Here, ten days later, after desperate fighting, they were compelled to yield. General

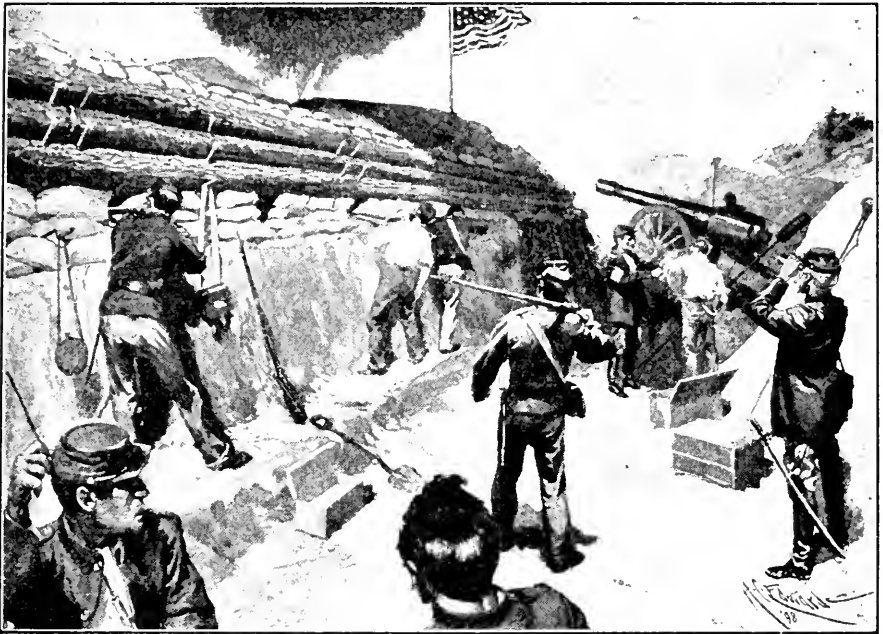
Buckner, who was in command of the fort, sent a flag of truce to Grant, asking for the terms of surrender. Grant replied in a brief but famous note: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Grant's soldiers, after this, used to say that the initials of his name stood for "Unconditional Surrender" Grant.

The gates of these western rivers were now open, and the victorious Union army advanced over two hundred miles into the territory of the enemy. The Confederates took their next stand along the southern boundary of Tennessee, with a line of defense extending from Vicksburg on the Mississippi to Chattanooga in the mountains of eastern Tennessee. Both of these positions were important. Chattanooga controlled the gap through the Alleghenies into the fertile state of Georgia, and Vicksburg overlooked and guarded the great highway of travel along the Mississippi River.

Against the latter position, Grant now directed the movements of his army. The South, gathering all its strength under Albert Sidney Johnston,¹ one of its ablest generals, endeavored to check this movement. The two armies met at Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh (April 6-7, 1862), in one of the most bitterly contested battles of the Civil War. The Southerners were victorious on the first day, but Grant, receiving reënforcements during the night, recovered his lost ground on the next day and drove them back. Soon after, Union fleets succeeded in taking New Orleans and Memphis, and the way was open to attack Vicksburg.

¹ A monument erected in the city of New Orleans bears this tribute to his memory: "A man tried in many high offices and critical enterprises and found faithful in all. No country ever had a truer son, no cause a nobler champion, no people a bolder defender than the dead soldier."

The Confederates called this city the "Gibraltar of America." It was situated on high bluffs along the eastern bank of the Mississippi River, and the Southern government had prepared extensive defenses here to guard the river. Its possession was important to them, for through it they controlled the river and brought supplies from the Confederate



Besieging Vicksburg

states on its western side. After several failures, Grant succeeded in reaching Vicksburg, and twice endeavored to take the city by storm.

Finding the Confederates too strongly intrenched to be captured in this way, he determined to starve them out. Day after day, Grant drew his lines closer. Week after week, the Southern soldiers lay in their trenches and starved. The fire from the Union gunboats and batteries was so continuous and so hot that the citizens of Vicksburg were compelled to

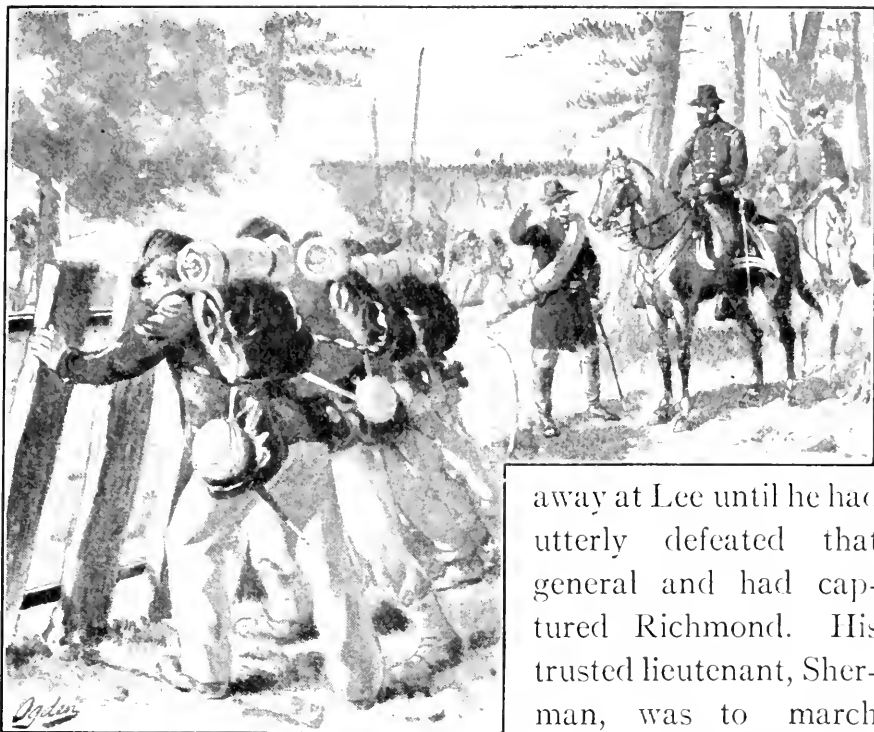
live in caves. At last siege and starvation did their work, and on July 4, 1863, the Confederate forces surrendered. When the news flashed through the North that Vicksburg had fallen, and that the Confederacy had been cut in two, there was great rejoicing. Lincoln had said of Grant, "I can't spare this man. He fights." The success of the western campaign proved the soundness of his judgment.

Grant was now placed in command of all the Union forces west of the Cumberland Mountains. He immediately commenced operations against the Confederates near Chattanooga, and after directing Sherman, Thomas, and Hooker in a series of brilliant battles, captured the enemy's positions in the fall of 1863. The road into Georgia was now open, ready for the time when Sherman and his men should sweep in victory from Chattanooga to Atlanta, and from Atlanta to the sea.

THE END OF THE WAR

These successes made it clear that Grant was the greatest general on the Northern side that the war had produced. Lincoln had been watching his career in the West with increasing confidence. He saw that Grant was "a copious worker and fighter, but a very meager writer"; that he always accomplished what he set out to do. So he summoned Grant to Washington and placed him in command of all the Union forces. And from that day there were no military orders from the White House, for the great President and the silent general understood and trusted each other. Lincoln had found his man, and the end of the war was at hand.

Grant's plan for the conduct of the war henceforth was simple. With his Army of the Potomac, and with Sheridan in command of his cavalry forces, he was to keep hammering



Sherman's Men destroying a Railroad

away at Lee until he had utterly defeated that general and had captured Richmond. His trusted lieutenant, Sherman, was to march through Georgia to the sea, thereby cutting the

Confederacy in two again, and destroying the main sources of supplies for its armies. How these plans were carried out we shall now see. On the 4th of May, 1864, Grant commenced this twofold campaign. The army of the Potomac, which he personally directed, numbering one hundred and twenty thousand men, was encamped on the banks of the Rapidan River in Virginia. From here he moved forward to attack Lee. The two greatest generals of the North and the South were for the first time face to face.

On the same day, in fulfillment of their agreement, Sherman began his advance from Chattanooga into Georgia, nor did he stop until he had captured and burned Atlanta and had offered Savannah to the President as a Christmas gift.

As Grant's veteran troops crossed the Rapidan and marched into the Wilderness, the soldiers sang:

“Ulysses leads the van!
Ulysses leads the van!
For we will dare
To follow where
Ulysses leads the van.”

“We have a general of our own,” they said, “and we mean to follow him on to Richmond.” They did so, but every step of the way was stubbornly contested by the “boys in gray.” Grant met in Lee an antagonist worthy of his utmost skill. Lee had been accustomed to Union generals who would fight a battle and then sit down and rest — or run away. But this quiet little man hung on with a bulldog grip. He never knew when he was beaten. Grant once said, “The art of war is simple enough. Find out where your enemy is. Get at him as soon as you can. Strike at him as hard as you can and as often as you can, and *keep moving on*.” This was just what he did in the Wilderness and in the battles which followed. “I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer,” Grant wrote to Lincoln, and he did not rest until he had driven Lee within the defenses of Richmond. Then Grant followed the same tactics which had won him Vicksburg. He drew his lines closely about the Southern capital, and began a stubborn siege of the city and its outlying fortifications.

Lee had been accustomed, whenever danger threatened Richmond, to make a counter attack upon Washington. So he sent General Jubal Early with the Confederate cavalry down the Shenandoah valley to make this attack. Grant, however, did not lessen his grip upon Richmond, but sent a strong force under General Sheridan with orders to

drive Early back and to lay waste the valley. Sheridan did his task thoroughly, although at Cedar Creek the Union troops were surprised and driven back. Sheridan, who was at Winchester, twenty miles away, heard the cannonading. Mounting his horse, he rushed to the battle field. As he met his retreating soldiers along the road, he shouted,

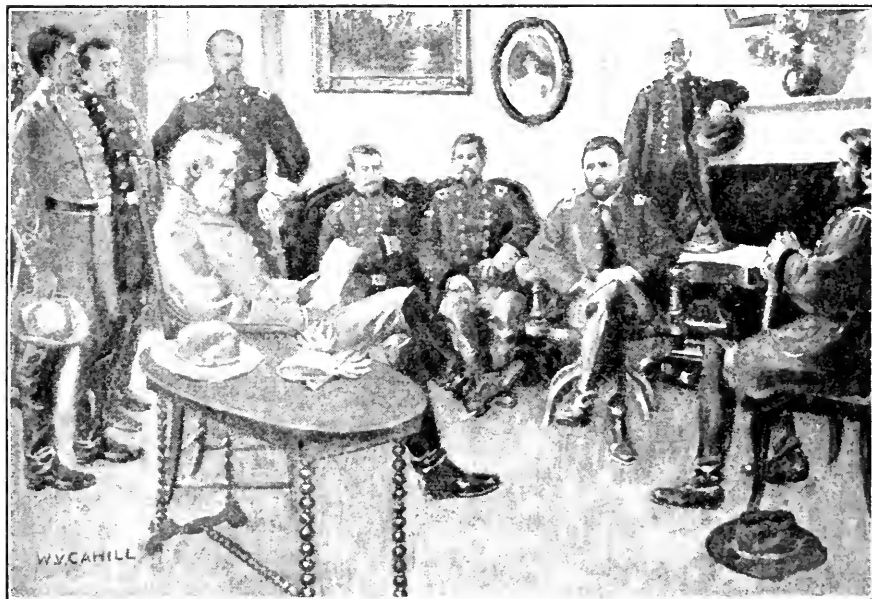


General Sheridan's Ride

“Turn, boys, turn! We’re going back!” Defeat, by his presence, was changed into victory, and Early was sent “whirling” out of the valley.

By the first of November, Grant had lost eighty thousand men in the battles about Richmond. These men the North could replace. Lee’s losses had not been so heavy, but he had no reserves to make them good, for practically all the Southern men capable of bearing arms were already in the Southern army. The war now resolved itself into a question of endurance. Finally, Lee’s supplies were exhausted, and he was forced to abandon Richmond. With the ragged remnant of his gallant army, he fled toward the west, hoping

to reach the mountains and prolong the war. But human endurance had reached its limit; his men, wearied, discouraged, and without food, were hemmed in on all sides by the Union troops. So at Appomattox Court House, on the 9th of April, 1865, he gave up the unequal struggle. Grant, stern and unyielding as a foe, now showed himself gentle and considerate as a friend. The terms of surrender were as simple and



Lee and Grant discussing the Terms of Lee's Surrender

as kindly as the character of the man who made them. The Southern officers and men were to retain their horses, baggage, and side-arms, and to return to their homes on parole.

"The men will need their horses for the spring plowing," Grant said. When Lee reminded him that the surrendered soldiers had nothing to eat, he ordered that rations and supplies be sent them at once; and when his men began the firing of salutes in honor of the victory, he stopped them, saying, "The war is over; the rebels are our countrymen again."

GRANT, THE NATION'S HERO

Grant's kindness to the conquered foe was shown again and again in the dark days following the Civil War. Instead of marching in triumph into Richmond at the head of his victorious army, he hastened to Washington to take the necessary steps to close the affairs of the war as quickly and as quietly as possible. Johnson, succeeding to the office of President after the death of Lincoln, desired to arrest Lee and other Confederate generals in order to have them tried for treason. Grant, thoroughly angered, threatened to resign from the army if this were done, and the scheme was dropped.

The whole nation loved and revered their great hero, and sought to reward him by electing him as their President. But the two terms he served in the presidential office added neither to his dignity nor to his reputation. He was not a statesman; he was not even a politician. He was simply a straightforward, honest man whose great gifts of mind and body were not along the lines of statecraft. So it was with a feeling of relief that he became again a private citizen. Once he said of a vote of thanks given him by Congress, "This is the certificate given me for being a good boy in school." It was with something of a boy's gladness when school days are over and playtime comes, that Grant with his wife made a tour around the world. He was received everywhere with the highest honors. Upon his return, he entered the banking firm of Grant and Ward.

Through the dishonesty of his partners, the enterprise failed and Grant found himself at the age of sixty-two a ruined man. Fearing dishonor more than poverty, he turned all of his property — even the gifts which kings and rulers had given him when abroad — over to his creditors. About the

same time an incurable disease fastened itself upon him. With a Christian courage rarely equaled in the life of any man, he went to work patiently to save his good name and to provide for his family. He had been asked to write the history of his life, and now undertook the task.

The greatest fight the brave soldier had ever had was before him; he must finish the *Memoirs* before death came.



Grant's Tomb, New York

The cancer in his throat caused him intense agony, yet he bore the suffering uncomplainingly. For hours, while stubbornly working at his desk, he would deny himself a drink of water rather than risk the chance of special pain in swallowing it. When he became too weak to hold the pen, he dictated the material for his book. As the disease progressed, his voice failed him and he could

speaking only in whispers. Still he fought on with the same dogged persistence that had won his other battles. At last, victory was his. The *Memoirs* were finished, and he had no further fear of death.

The end came at Mount McGregor, a beautiful mountain home overlooking Saratoga, N. Y., to which he had been removed in the summer of 1885. There, on the 23d of July, the great general and simple-hearted man breathed his last. He was laid to rest in a beautiful park in the city of New York,

on the banks of the Hudson River. The splendid marble tomb which a grateful country erected to his memory marks his last resting place. But his most enduring monument is in the hearts of the nation he helped to save. His simple words, "Let us have peace," find a response in the heart of every true American.

Topical Outline. — The ancestry of Grant. His boyhood days and life at West Point. Grant in the regular army: his experiences in the war with Mexico. His business ventures. Grant as a general in the Civil War. His campaigns in the West: Forts Henry and Donelson, Shiloh, Vicksburg, campaign in Tennessee. His campaigns in the East: crushing Lee's army, kindness to the conquered foe. Grant's later life: as President; as a private citizen; his greatest fight. His victory.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph describing Grant's early life. II. Tell some incident of Grant's experiences in the Civil War. III. Imagine yourself living in Vicksburg during the siege of that city. What were your experiences there? IV. Why do you think Grant's soldiers loved him? V. Tell in your own words the story of Sheridan's ride. VI. Give some examples of Grant's kindness of heart and thoughtfulness of others. VII. What event of Grant's life do you admire most?

Map Work. — Locate West Point (p. 60), Monterey, Mexico (p. 304), Fort Henry, Fort Donelson, Shiloh (near Pittsburg Landing), Vicksburg, Appomattox (p. 252).

Collateral Reading

History. — Hancock, "Life at West Point"; Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," pp. 179-183, 257-259, 189-191.

Biography. — Burton, "Four American Patriots," pp. 195-254; Brooks, "Century Book of Famous Americans," pp. 137-191; Brooks, "True Story of Grant"; Grant, "Personal Memoirs"; Wister, "U. S. Grant"; Allen, "Ulysses S. Grant."

Poetry. — Read, "Sheridan's Ride"; Finch, "The Blue and the Gray"; Drake, "The American Flag."

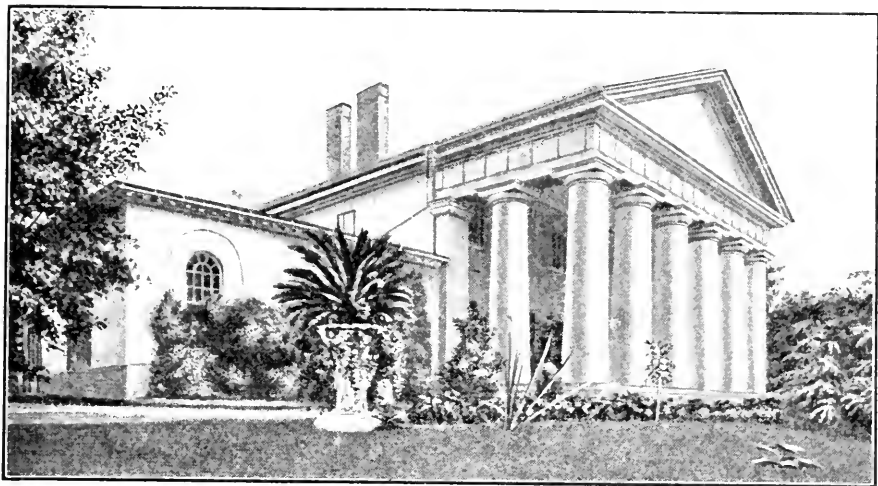
ROBERT E. LEE, THE CAPTAIN OF THE BOYS IN GRAY

THE three men whom the Civil War made most famous came from entirely different classes of American life. Lincoln, the martyred President, rose to his high position from the humblest circumstances; his early life was one of toil and privation. Grant, the iron-handed general, came from the great middle class of America, the sinew and strength of our nation. Lee, the gallant leader of the gray-clad Southern soldiers, was descended from one of Virginia's aristocratic families. All of these men were gentlemen in the highest sense of the term — kindly, clean-minded, and strong. Each of them did his work in his own way and did it well. We have read the lives of Lincoln and Grant, and we shall turn now to that of Lee in order that we may see through Southern eyes what the Civil War was.

Robert Edward Lee was born at Stratford, a beautiful country home of the Lee family, situated in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia. His father was General Henry Lee, whose daring deeds as a cavalry leader in the Revolutionary War had given him the title of "Light Horse Harry." He was a brave soldier and a gallant gentleman, whose friendship for Washington led him to speak of the great Virginian as "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens." When Robert was four years old, his father moved to Alexandria in order to give the children better school privileges. Here his boyhood days were spent,

and here, after the death of his father, he was the comfort and support of an invalid mother. As he grew to young manhood, he learned to ride well, to shoot straight, and always to tell the truth.

At eighteen Robert received an appointment to West Point, from which he was graduated four years later with the second highest honors of his class. He was assigned to duty



Lee's Home, Arlington

in the Engineer Corps of the regular army. For years he served in this important division of the military branch of our government, planning coast defenses, building levees on the Mississippi River, and assisting in other engineering work. During these busy years, he found time to woo and win Mary Randolph Custis, the beautiful daughter of Washington's adopted son, Washington Park Custis. After their marriage in 1831, they made their home in Arlington, Mr. Custis's splendid country estate on the Potomac River within sight of the city of Washington. This mansion, at Mr. Custis's death, became the property of Mrs. Lee. It was the home of the family until the Civil War. The surround-

ing grounds and estate are now used as a national cemetery, in which many of the brave soldiers of that war have their last resting place.

Lee saw active service throughout the war with Mexico, winning the highest praise from his commanders, and showing traits of courage and of leadership that were afterwards

to make him famous.

A story is told that once when Lee was acting as a scout he pushed too near the enemy's line and was forced to lie hidden in a hollow log while the Mexicans passed and repassed his place of concealment. In 1852 Lee was appointed superintendent of the West Point Academy, where he remained until 1855. His son



John Brown at Harpers Ferry

Custis Lee was a student at the Academy during these years, and in the same class with Custis was another southern boy named Stuart, who afterwards became one of the dashing cavalry leaders of the Civil War.

In 1859 Lee was sent by the government to capture John Brown. Brown was a noted abolitionist who had shared in the border troubles in Kansas. He conceived the idea that, by arousing and arming the negroes in Virginia, he might hasten their freedom. With only a handful of followers, he began operations by seizing the United States Arsenal at Harpers

Ferry. Colonel Lee was sent with a company of United States marines to suppress the insurrection. He captured Brown and turned him over to the civil authorities for trial. The insurrection was in itself insignificant, but it was one of the many irritating causes of the misunderstanding between the North and the South, now rapidly reaching an acute state. Soon after this incident, Lee was sent to Texas to take charge of the government forces there. He remained in this position for a year. Then, after Texas had joined the secession movement, Lee was recalled to Washington.

The war storm that had so long threatened now broke. Seven of the Southern states, following the leadership of South Carolina, had already formed the Confederate States of America when Lee reached home. In the border slaveholding states, however, there was a strong sentiment opposed to secession. Nowhere was this stronger than in the great commonwealth of Virginia. That state, the mother of Presidents, the scene of so many splendid deeds of patriotism, hesitated to sever the bonds of a Union in which she had shared so conspicuously and so honorably.

Her citizens still longed for a peaceful solution of the problem. But the capture of Fort Sumter, which so aroused the North, also unified Southern sentiment. When it was seen that the government intended, at all hazards, to prevent secession, Virginia, together with North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas, joined the Confederacy. The men and women of these border states felt that their duty and their loyalty should be greater to their states than to the Nation.

To Lee, as well as to thousands of other men who loved the old Union, now came the necessity of a choice between the two flags. By the advice of General Scott, President Lincoln offered Lee the command of the United States armies. His

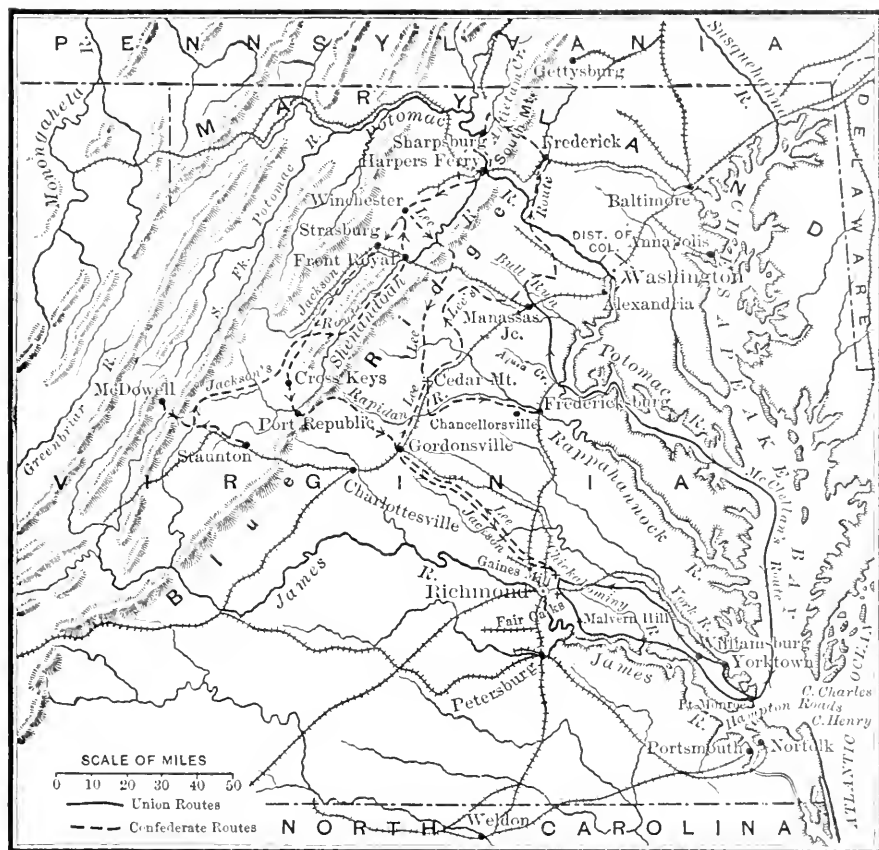
marked ability and experience, as well as his conspicuous services in the Mexican war, eminently fitted him for this high position. But, although opposing secession and earnestly praying that war might be averted, he felt that he could take no part in an invasion of the Southern states. Accordingly he refused Lincoln's offer and resigned his commission in the army. His only ambition now was to remain a private citizen, and to use his influence, if possible to avert, war.

In a letter to his sister he made clear his position at this time. "The whole South," he wrote, "is in a state of revolution, into which Virginia, after a long struggle, has been drawn; and though I recognize no necessity for this state of things, and would have pleaded to the end for redress of grievances real or supposed, yet I had to meet the question whether I should take part against my native state. With all my devotion to the Union, and the feeling of loyalty and duty of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home."

Lee could not, however, long maintain this neutral attitude. The time soon came when he found it necessary to fulfill his solemn pledge to draw his sword only in defense of his native state. The Virginia legislature, at once taking active measures to repel the threatened invasion, placed Lee in command of the military forces of the state. The next year was spent by Lee in organizing troops, in a campaign in West Virginia, and in caring for the coast defenses of South Carolina and Georgia. On the 1st of June, 1862, he was placed in command of the Army of Virginia, as the Southern forces defending Richmond were called, and from that time until the close of the war was the most conspicuous of the Southern generals.

THE EASTERN CAMPAIGNS OF 1862 AND 1863

It is not within the scope of this book to give any detailed account of the many battles and skirmishes of the Civil War. The general movements of the opposing armies in the East during the years of 1862 and 1863 should, however, be



The Virginia Campaigns of 1862

remembered. The scene of action was in Virginia and Maryland. The Northern army was called the Army of the Potomac; the Southern, the Army of Virginia. The North tried to capture Richmond; the South, to protect that city and, by a

counter attack, to threaten Washington. So, each year, there was a determined effort to capture the Southern capital, which was repelled, and which was followed by an equally vigorous northern invasion by the Southern forces under the command of Lee. Let us now see how these great movements on the chessboard of war were conducted.

In the spring of 1862 the Union forces were encamped on the Potomac about Washington, under the command of McClellan. For months after the disastrous battle of Bull Run, he had been occupied in organizing his army and drilling his forces, until the phrase "All is quiet along the Potomac" grew tiresome to the people of the North, who wanted the Northern troops to move at once against Richmond.

Finally McClellan began active operations. Instead of marching his troops overland across Virginia, he transported them by boat to Fort Monroe, at the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, attacked the Confederates at Yorktown, and began to approach Richmond from a southwesterly direction. This was called the Peninsular Campaign, because it was fought on the peninsula between the James and the York Rivers. He reached a point within ten miles of Richmond, and in the battle of Fair Oaks defeated the Confederates under General Joseph E. Johnston. Johnston was severely wounded in this battle, and the command of the Army of Virginia was given to General Lee.

Lee at once took the offensive. In order to relieve the attack upon Richmond, he sent General J. E. B. Stuart with a large force of Confederate cavalry to cut off McClellan's supplies. General T. J. Jackson, whose bravery at the first battle of Bull Run had given him the title of "Stonewall," was sent up the Shenandoah valley to threaten Washington,

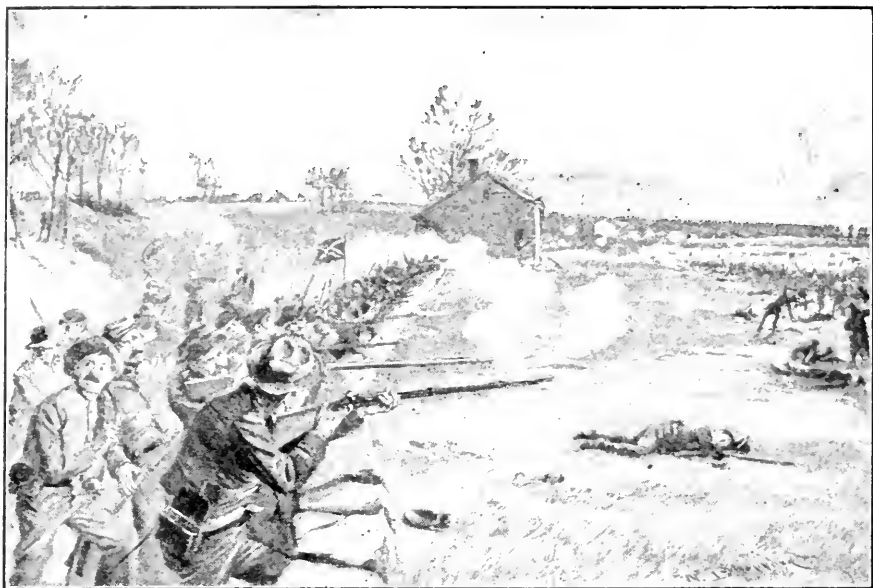
and on his return Lee and Jackson attacked McClellan in what are known as the Seven Days' Battles (June 26-July 2, 1862), culminating in the battle of Malvern Hill, where the Confederates were repulsed with fearful slaughter. The combined movements, however, were successful. The siege of Richmond was raised, and Lee was free to invade the North.

Before troops from the Army of the Potomac could be brought to strengthen the Northern forces protecting Washington, Lee fought and won the battle of Manassas, on the old battle field of Bull Run (August 29, 1862). He then pushed forward rapidly, crossed the Potomac into Maryland, and on September 17, 1862, met the Northern forces, now reunited and strengthened, at Sharpsburg on Antietam Creek. It was a drawn battle, but Lee was forced to withdraw across the Potomac and abandon his campaign of invasion. McClellan failed to press the retreating Southern army as vigorously as the authorities in Washington desired, and was removed from his command. Burnside was appointed as his successor, and proved as reckless as McClellan had been cautious. He attacked Lee in a strongly fortified position at Fredericksburg (December 13, 1862), and met with a disastrous defeat. The Southern army now went into winter quarters, and the Eastern campaign of 1862 ended with no advantage on either side.



Stonewall Jackson

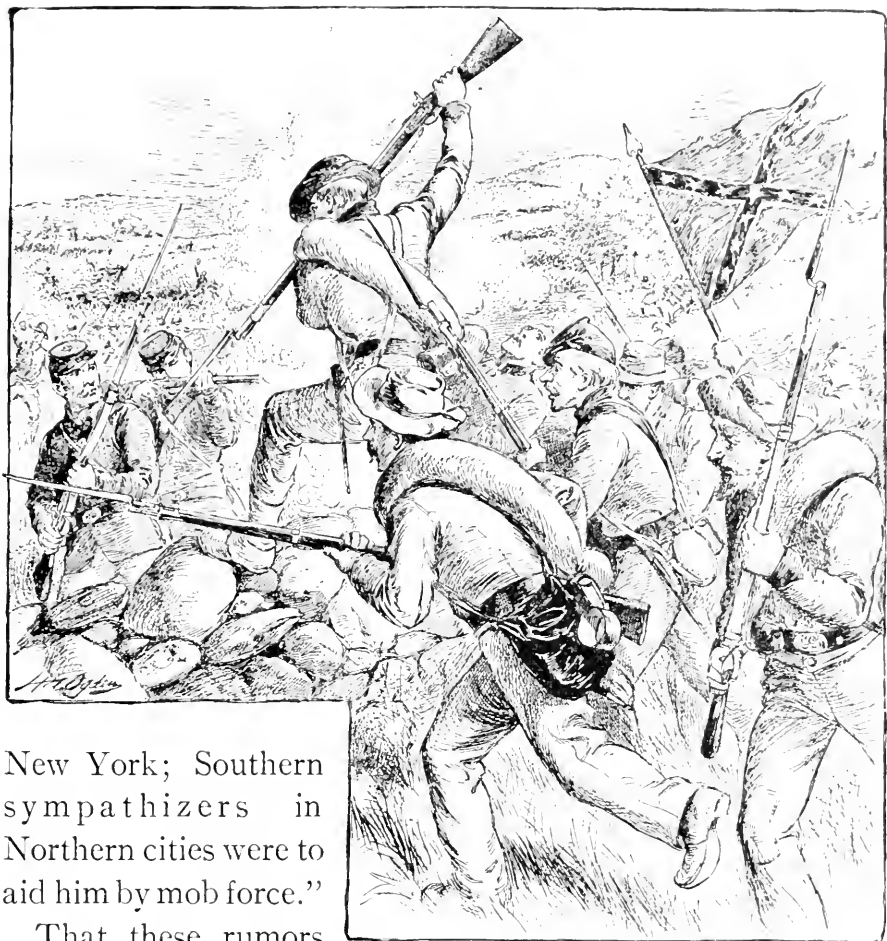
The first general engagement between the opposing armies in 1863 was fought at Chancellorsville (May 2-3, 1863), and here Lee won a brilliant victory over "Fighting



At Chancellorsville

Joe" Hooker, in command of the Army of the Potomac. In this battle, however, Lee lost his most able general, Stonewall Jackson. Jackson had been an important factor in all of these campaigns. At Manassas, at Antietam, and at Fredericksburg, he had been Lee's "right arm." A man of lofty moral principles, of stern devotion to duty, like the Puritans of old, of boundless courage, and of great personal influence over his men, Jackson was a soldier whom the Confederacy could not replace.

Lee's second invasion of the North now began. His troops, flushed with victory, singing "Maryland, my Maryland" as they marched across that state, pushed forward into Pennsylvania. The North was thoroughly alarmed, for it was the first time a considerable body of Southern troops had reached any of the Northern states. All sorts of vague and terrifying rumors swept over the country. "Lee was to attack Harrisburg; his army might capture and destroy Philadelphia or even



Pickett's Charge at Gettysburg

New York; Southern sympathizers in Northern cities were to aid him by mob force."

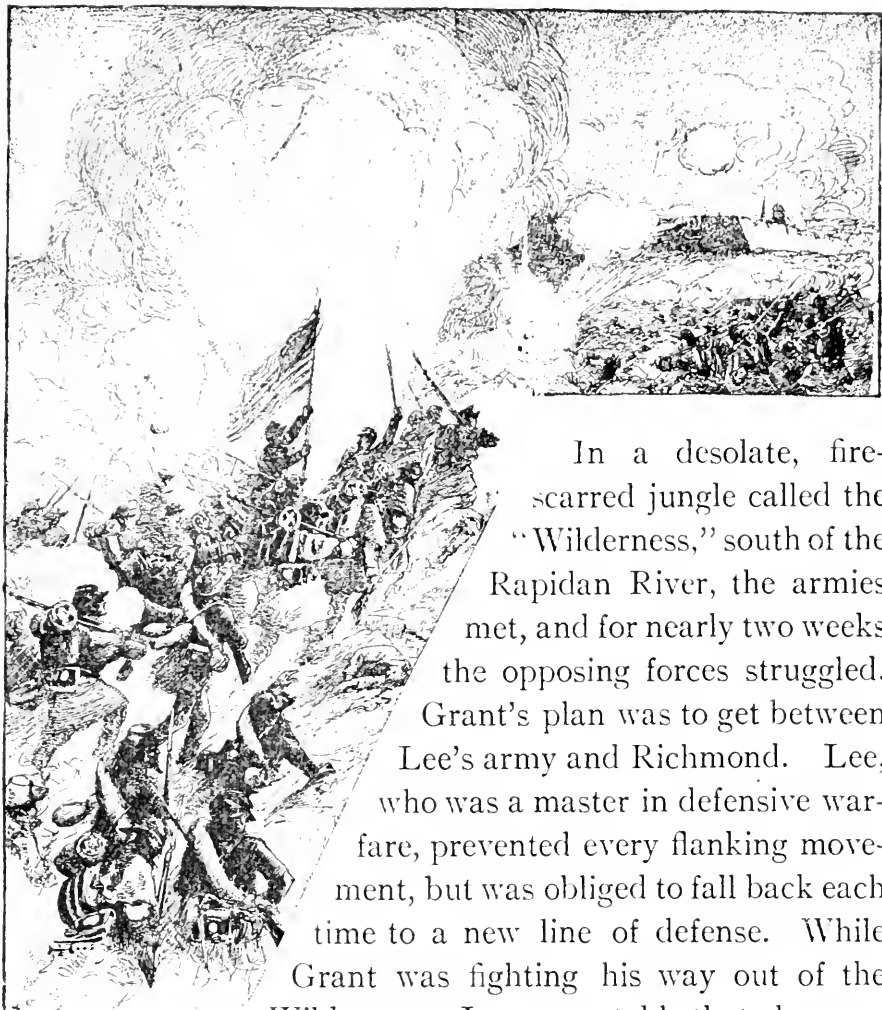
That these rumors had no serious foundation in fact did not lessen the feeling of alarm. However, the daring invasion of Lee's army was checked on the battle field of Gettysburg, in southern Pennsylvania, July 1-3, 1863. After a fearful struggle lasting three days, Lee was turned back. One of the thrilling incidents of this battle, the greatest of the Civil War, was the charge of fifteen thousand soldiers, the flower of the Confederate army, under General Pickett. In a last desperate attempt to turn the tide of battle, Lee hurled these men against the Union intrenchments on

Cemetery Ridge. Crossing a mile of open ground under a most terrific fire, they reached the Union lines, and in a hand to hand struggle were driven back. The history of the war records no more superb courage or greater devotion to a lost cause than that shown by Pickett's men in their famous charge. A monument now marks the spot where the Confederates were repulsed. It bears the inscription, "Highwater Mark of the Rebellion," and history confirms its verdict.

The loss of life in the battle of Gettysburg was appalling. Nearly fifty thousand men, the best blood of America, fell on that battle field. The men whom Lee lost could never be replaced. He was forced to retreat, and he never made another attempt to invade the North. The Army of the Potomac followed the retreating Southern forces into Virginia, and for the remainder of the year no movements of importance took place there. The two armies then went into winter quarters, facing each other, on the banks of the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers.

When spring came, both sides girded themselves for the final struggle. A new general was now in command of the Northern armies. Grant, the hero of the West, had been summoned to Washington to put down the rebellion and to restore peace to the nation.

The Southern leaders knew that this simple, silent man would fight until the end, and they made desperate efforts to strengthen Lee's army. Every able-bodied man in the South between the ages of seventeen and fifty was summoned for military duty. The campaign commenced early in May, when Grant began his advance. Back of him were the vast resources of the North, while Lee had the advantage of fighting on the defensive in a country with which he was thoroughly familiar.



Siege of Petersburg

In a desolate, fire-scarred jungle called the "Wilderness," south of the Rapidan River, the armies met, and for nearly two weeks the opposing forces struggled. Grant's plan was to get between Lee's army and Richmond. Lee, who was a master in defensive warfare, prevented every flanking movement, but was obliged to fall back each time to a new line of defense. While Grant was fighting his way out of the Wilderness, Lee was told that he was retreating. "You are mistaken," Lee replied, "quite mistaken; Grant isn't a retreating man."

Finally, the Confederate forces were pushed back to the fortifications about Richmond. One of the most important outposts of that city was Petersburg, south of the Confederate capital. This Grant attacked, but, finding it too strongly fortified to be taken by storm, he began a siege. For nine months Lee and his devoted men withstood all assaults,

but sickness and starvation did their work at last. When the thin gray line under Lee could hold out no longer, Petersburg fell, April 2, 1865. The next day the Confederates abandoned Richmond, and the Union forces took possession of the city. With the downfall of the Confederate capital the war was practically ended, for Lee was forced soon after to surrender to the superior forces under Grant.

The scene at Appomattox Court House, when Lee bade farewell to his troops after he had surrendered, was touching and pathetic.

For years they had followed "Uncle Robert," as they affectionately called him, through dangers and privations, and they sobbed in anguish when he told them that the struggle was over. "Men," he said, "we have fought through the war together. I have done my best for you. My heart is too full to say more." Then he mounted his gray war horse, Traveler, and rode back to his home and his family.

Now that the great conflict was ended, Lee retired to private life, and bravely set about repairing his shattered fortunes. He was offered employment and a large salary in several business enterprises, but refused to accept any position for which he felt himself unfitted. Finally he was elected president of Washington College, at Lexington, Virginia, afterward re-named Washington and Lee University. This call he accepted, saying, "I have led the young men of the South to battle; I have seen many of them fall under my standard. I shall devote my life now to training young men to do their duty in life."

To this self-imposed task, he gave himself with all the energy of his great nature. His exposure during the war, however, had sapped his vitality, and five years later, on the 12th of October, 1870, he died. Some one has said of Lee: "He

was a foe without hate and a friend without treachery, a soldier without cruelty and a victim without murmuring. He was a public officer without vice, a private citizen without wrong, a neighbor without reproach, a Christian without hypocrisy, and a man without guilt."

In this summary of his virtues a reunited country now agrees. We wish to remember him as a Christian gentleman, beloved in peace as well as in war, a noble example of a great American.

Topical Outline. — Three types of American citizens. Lee's ancestry and education. His life in the army prior to the Civil War. The movement toward secession. Lee's services in the Civil War. (a) The Eastern campaign of 1862; (b) The eastern campaign of 1863. The final struggle with Grant. Lee as a private citizen.

For Written Work. — I. Tell of Lee's early life and education. II. Write a paragraph about his reasons for loyalty to his state. III. Describe one of Lee's campaigns. IV. Write the names of the leading generals on the Southern side in the Civil War. V. Whom do you consider the greater general, Lee or Grant? Why?

Map Work. — Locate Alexandria, Richmond, Malvern Hill, Manassas, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Petersburg.

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Williamson, "The Life of Lee"; Cooke, "Robert E. Lee"; Lee, "General Lee."

ADMIRAL FARRAGUT AND THE WORK OF THE NAVY

THE navy as well as the army had important work in the Civil War, and among the commanders were many brave men. One of the most famous was Admiral Farragut.



Statue of Farragut, New York

The father of Farragut was a Spanish gentleman who came to this country in 1776 and served as major of cavalry in the

Revolutionary War. He married and settled in eastern Tennessee, where in 1801 David Glasgow Farragut was born. Soon after the purchase of Louisiana the Farraguts moved to the vicinity of New Orleans.

One day in 1808, while fishing on Lake Pontchartrain, Farragut found an old man prostrated by the heat. He took him home and found that he was David Porter, a sailing master and father of Captain David Porter, who became prominent in the War of 1812. Porter was very sick at the Farragut home for several weeks. Mrs. Farragut, who tenderly cared for him, died just before his death, and the funeral of both occurred on the same day.

The old gentleman's son, Captain Porter, felt so grateful to the Farraguts for their kindness, and so sorry for the motherless children, that he asked to adopt young David. He took the boy north and placed him in school.

When but eight years of age, David said that he wanted to enter the navy. Soon after going north, Captain Porter took the lad to the Secretary of the Navy, who was pleased with the boy and promised him a midshipman's warrant. Although he was appointed in December, 1810, he remained at school until the following August, when with Captain Porter he joined the *Essex*.

Life on the *Essex* was good training for the future admiral. The best of discipline was maintained on board ship. The chaplain, who was the midshipman's schoolmaster, took particular interest in young David, and did much more for him than merely hearing him recite. The boy soon shared in exciting experiences, for war with England was declared the following spring.

The *Essex* made a long cruise to the Mediterranean, then back around Cape Horn to the Pacific, capturing British

prizes. She had taken eleven British whalers in the Pacific when Captain Porter received word that three English ships were on their way to capture or destroy him.

Early in February, 1814, the *Essex*, with some prize ships, entered the neutral harbor of Valparaiso (the chief port of Chile, in South America), followed a little later by the two English ships, the *Phæbe* and the *Cherub*, under the command of Captain Hillyer, a personal friend of Captain Porter. The American ships had the better position, but circumstances did not warrant Captain Porter's opening an action with apparently friendly visitors.

After several days, in which Captain Porter was puzzled about the Englishman's purpose, a heavy gale broke the topmast off the *Essex* and severed her cable chains. The ship was so badly disabled that she could not put to sea. The English ships then made an attack. They were armed with long-range guns, that sent a small ball with great force; while the American ships had short-range guns, firing larger shot with less speed. These could do great damage, but in order to use them the ship must be able to move freely. As it was, the *Essex* was so crippled that the English ships could easily get out of her range, while their long guns in two hours compelled Captain Porter to strike his colors.

David Farragut, not yet thirteen, was in the thick of this terrible fight, but escaped unharmed. Young as he was, he was regarded as a prisoner of war, and was formally exchanged a few months later after returning to New York.

He then attended a private school in Chester, Pennsylvania, until after peace was made with England. In the spring of 1816, he was ordered to Washington for a trip to the Mediterranean. His journal mentions visits to the cities of the Barbary coasts, Sicily, and Italy. The Rev. Charles Folsom was

the chaplain, and found Farragut an apt pupil. In the autumn of 1817, Mr. Folsom was appointed consul to Tunis, and asked that David be permitted to spend the winter with him, to continue his studies. This companionship with Mr. Folsom was most valuable to Farragut.

He was regularly promoted, and had most interesting experiences, among which was the command of the *Brandywine* to take Lafayette home in 1826. For lack of space we must pass over many years of his life. After California was added to the Union, Farragut was sent to San Francisco to build a navy yard, and remained four years in charge of Mare Island navy yard, in San Francisco Bay. In 1858 he was promoted to the rank of captain, then the highest grade in the navy, and was given command of the *Brooklyn*, our first steam war ship.

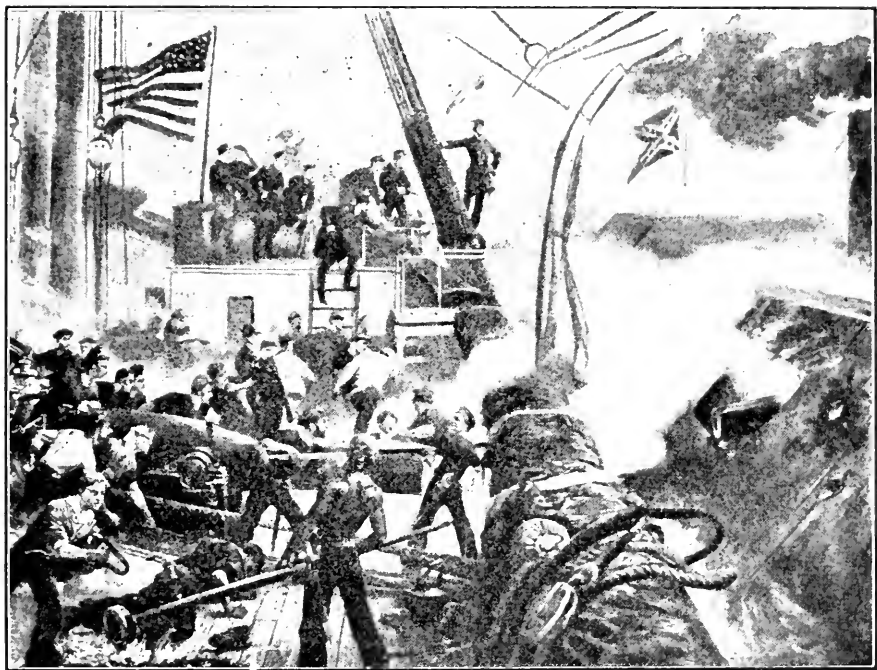
In October, 1860, he returned to his home at Norfolk, Virginia. Trying days followed. Lincoln was elected, and the Southern states seceded. Farragut was born in a Southern state, for many years his home had been in Virginia, and many of his personal friends were in sympathy with the South. But when Virginia joined the Confederacy in 1861, Farragut moved his family to New York state, and offered his services to the government to help preserve the Union.

Early in the war the government decided to get possession of the Mississippi River. The plan provided for an army and a fleet of gunboats to force their way down the river, while at the same time an entrance was to be made from the Gulf of Mexico. This latter task was committed to Farragut, then about sixty years of age.

New Orleans is ninety miles from the mouth of the river. Seventy-five miles below the city were two forts on opposite banks, just below which heavy chain cables, attached to hulks of old boats, crossed the river. Between the forts and

stubborn determination not to lower the flag over the city hall. A little later the forts surrendered. Farragut remained on the river until the fall of Vicksburg, in 1863. His achievements entitled him to first place on the list of proposed admirals.

In August, 1864, Farragut was sent to open Mobile Bay. An island lies at the entrance, and the channels on both sides



Fight in Mobile Bay

were well fortified. Farragut lashed his ships in pairs, and passed these forts rapidly, firing broadsides. In order to see above the smoke, he climbed up under the maintop of his ship. One of his men, fearing he might lose his footing, sent a seaman up to tie him to the rigging. Farragut consented, for, as he replied, he could then use his field glasses more easily.

When once past the entrance, the fight in the bay was short but at first very uncertain, because of the monster ram, *Tennessee*. This was finally compelled to surrender by several of Farragut's boats closing in around her. This victory gave Mobile Bay to the federal government; but the city of Mobile, thirty miles above, was not taken until the next spring.

In July, 1866, Farragut was the first American to be created an admiral, and it is interesting to know that Captain Porter, who aided him at New Orleans, succeeded to the title on Admiral Farragut's death in 1870.

Admiral Farragut was a good man as well as a great commander. As a mere child he was a favorite on board ship, and as a man he was loved by all under his command, and was often spoken of as "Little Luff." What he wrote his wife on entering Mobile Bay shows his character well: "I am going into Mobile in the morning, if God is my leader, as I hope he is, and in him I place my trust."

OTHER NAVAL EXPLOITS

There were other brilliant exploits under brave commanders, among whom were Lieutenant Worden of the *Monitor*, Captain Winslow of the *Kearsarge*, and Lieutenant Cushing, who destroyed the ram *Albemarle*.

Early in 1862, the Confederates covered an old warship with iron plates and sent it out to attack federal ships. This ironclad is famous as the *Merrimac*, and, although seamen laughingly called it a Quaker meetinghouse, for a time it was the best ship afloat.

The *Merrimac* at Hampton Roads had one day sunk the *Cumberland* and the *Congress*, and intended, the next day, to dispose of the *Minnesota*, but when she was about to attack the latter, a queer-looking little boat slipped out from behind,

and replied with heavy balls. The Confederates at first jeered at what they called "A Yankee cheese-box on a raft," but very soon they realized that the little ironclad *Monitor* was a worthy opponent.

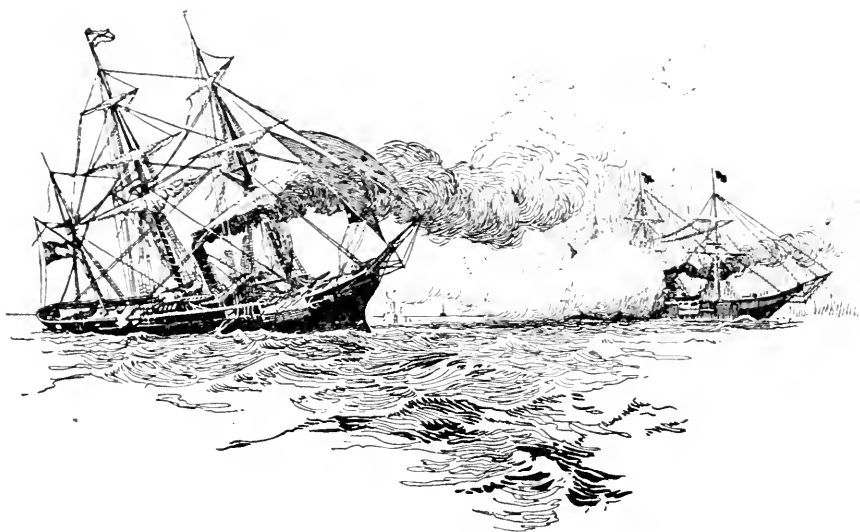
The boats advanced, backed, and dashed at each other, continually firing shot that rolled off with little damage. The *Monitor* began to gain the advantage. Then a well-directed shell struck her pilot house, where Lieutenant Worden stood directing the battle. Flakes of iron and powder were driven into his face and eyes. The *Monitor* then withdrew, and the *Merrimac* was glad to bring the engagement to an end.

When lying on a couch in the cabin, blinded and in great suffering, Lieutenant Worden asked, "Have I saved the *Minnesota*?" When told that he had, he replied, "Then I die happy." But he did not die. He recovered his sight and his health, and served the government for twenty years longer.

CAPTAIN WINSLOW AND THE ALABAMA

The Confederates made heroic efforts to break the blockade, not only to carry on trade with Europe, but to destroy Northern merchant vessels. One of the famous vessels in this service was the *Alabama*, built in England. The *Alabama* had captured sixty-six merchant vessels when Captain Winslow of the *Kearsarge* caught her in the harbor of Cherbourg, on the north coast of France.

The *Alabama* was compelled to fight. The engagement took place three or four miles from the coast, and was witnessed by many English and French people. Since the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama* were about equal in fitness, the fight was hard and fair. Both sides showed much skill, but in the end the *Alabama* had to strike her flag. The ship soon sank, while her captain escaped to an English ship.



The Alabama and the Kearsarge

LIEUTENANT CUSHING AND THE ALBEMARLE

One of the youngest officers to attain distinction by a valiant piece of work was Lieutenant Cushing, but twenty-two years of age. The Confederates had an ironclad ram, the *Albemarle*, that had done a great deal of damage to Federal shipping. This boat had the advantage of speed, and could also run in water too shallow for war vessels of the regular pattern.

The ram lay anchored in the Roanoke River, near the city of Plymouth, North Carolina, eight miles from the mouth of the river, in October, 1864. Lieutenant Cushing, eager for daring work, begged permission to attempt to destroy her. With a dozen men in a launch one dark night he slipped up the river, unseen until a few yards from the *Albemarle*. He had everything in readiness, and just as the shots from the ram shattered his launch, a torpedo exploded by Cushing blew up the *Albemarle*.

Cushing shouted to his men to take care of themselves, and,

as his boat sank, he swam down stream. Half an hour later, nearly exhausted, he crawled through a swamp and found a negro's cabin, where he got food and shelter for a few hours rest. He then started out, captured a skiff from a rebel picket, and before night had reached his fleet in safety.

Topical Outline. — Farragut: birth and descent. Adopted by Captain Porter. Taken north and became midshipman. The fight of the *Essex*. Mediterranean cruises. Built navy yard at San Francisco. Battle of New Orleans. Opened Mobile Bay. Character. Other famous naval officers in the Civil War: Worden, Winslow, Cushing.

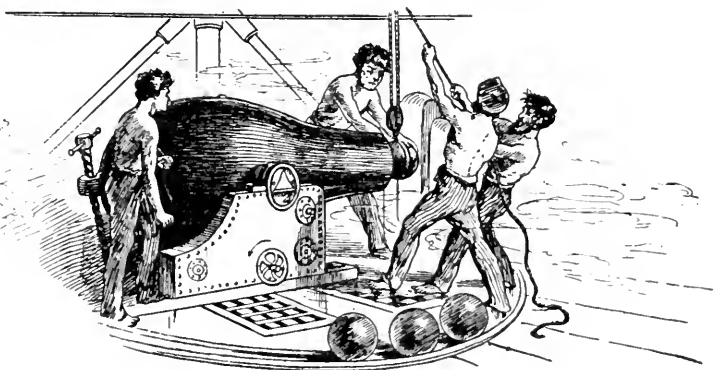
For Written Work. — I. Imagine you were young Farragut, and write an account of the battle of the *Essex*. II. Write on the importance of controlling the Mississippi River during the war. III. Tell the story of Lieutenant Cushing and the *Albatross*.

Map Work. — Locate Valparaiso (p. 328); Mare Island (near San Francisco), New Orleans, Mobile Bay, Plymouth, N. C. (p. 304); Cherbourg.

Collateral Reading

History. — Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," pp. 171-179, 313-315, 347-379; Hart, "Source Book," pp. 313-315.

Biography. — Beebe, "Four American Naval Heroes," pp. 133-192, 201-254; Mahan, "Admiral Farragut"; Barnes, "Midshipman Farragut."



Loading a Naval Cannon in the Civil War

CLARA BARTON AND THE RED CROSS SOCIETY

As soon as President Lincoln called for volunteers in 1861, groups of women in Northern cities and towns began to make an effort to give relief and comfort to the soldiers. They met together to sew. They prepared bandages and made "comfort bags," and sent them to the army.

In June, the Sanitary Commission was organized and given the right to work in the camps and on the battle fields. These men and women realized that soldiers cannot win battles when they are sick, and that as great efforts should be made to prevent sickness as to care for the wounded. They sent to the soldiers printed circulars that gave directions about keeping their clothes and the camps clean, and also warned them about drinking water and the care of food. When it was found that much sickness could be prevented by furnishing the soldiers vegetables to eat, farmers through the North and West shipped to the front carloads of potatoes and onions.

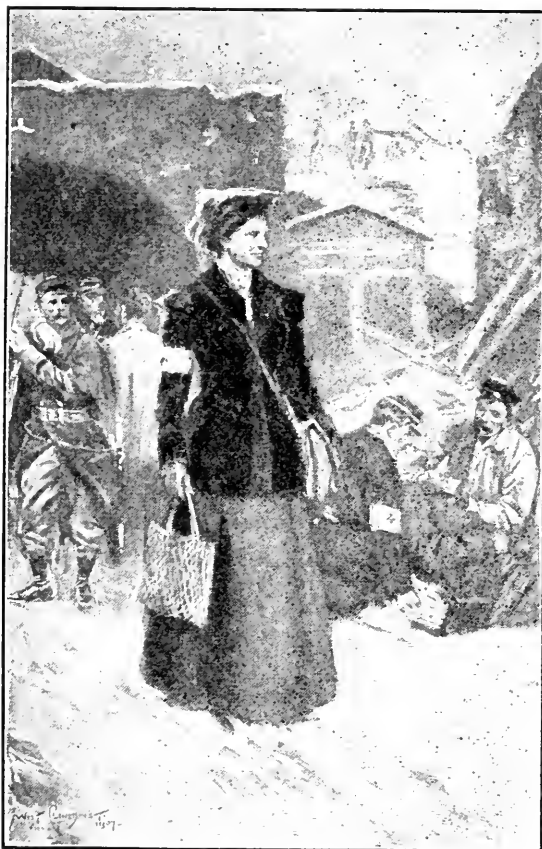
Very early in the war came the call for nurses, and many young women responded. Among these were Dorothy Dix and Mary Livermore, whose services will long be remembered. Even an untrained woman was of great help in the hospitals as she went from cot to cot, giving a drink of water to one patient, a fresh handkerchief to another, and a word of cheer here and there. At meal time many of the sick ones had to be fed, and some wanted letters written home. At all times the surgeons and the skilled nurses were very busy dressing wounds and caring for the serious cases.

Of all the brave women who gave themselves to this work the greatest is known to the world to-day as Clara Barton. She was a Massachusetts woman of thirty or more, and was in the Patent Office in Washington when the war broke out. Seeing the great needs of the first troops, and the difficulties of the government in supplying them, she offered her salary, but the government could not accept it.

Finding no way of contributing, and unwilling to draw her salary, she resigned her position and went to the field to care for the sick and wounded, even before the organization of the Sanitary Commission. This drew the attention of the Northern people, who, finding a way of getting supplies direct to their soldiers, commenced to send them to her in such quantities as to require storage. The government gave her trains and men for transportation, and such information as was proper, concerning possible engagements. In this way, her supplies were first at a battle, often holding in check the most terrible needs, till regular relief came. On some expeditions she had ten army wagons of supplies, with sixty mules and drivers. In this way, she went through the four years of war, often remaining months at the field with no shelter but her wagons and tents.

At the close of the war, the army rolls showed that sixty thousand men were "missing." President Lincoln authorized her to make a search to learn their probable fate. She and her helpers gained information of about twenty thousand. Through this search the government learned of the condition of the dead buried at Andersonville prison. Miss Barton was then sent to identify and mark the graves of the thirteen thousand soldiers buried there. Their burial place, covering fifty acres of ground, is known to-day as the "Cemetery of the Union Dead at Andersonville."

Broken in health, she went to Europe in 1869 for needed rest, but the war between France and Germany called her again to the field, to serve with the Red Cross Society at all the greatest battles from the Rhine to Paris. Returning to America, where the Red Cross had never been heard of, she



Clara Barton

set to work to make known to our government the principles of the society for the relief of the sick and wounded in war. After six years of labor at her own expense, she succeeded in getting our government to coöperate with the International Red Cross. On President Garfield's suggestion, she became president of the American Red Cross, and held that position until 1904, when she resigned.

The flag, a red cross on a white ground, is recognized

and respected as neutral in time of war. All nurses and representatives wear the red cross arm badge, and the field hospital must show, with this red cross, the national flag as well. It is always the practice of the Red Cross in time of war to care for friend and enemy alike.

By consent of foreign nations, Miss Barton added to the work of the Red Cross in America, the relief of great disasters in civil life, as from fire, flood, and famine. This is known as the "American Amendment." She was always present with her helpers in such disasters as the Mississippi and Ohio floods, the Johnstown and Galveston floods, and the Russian famine; some twenty in as many years. During all this time not a dollar was drawn from the treasury of the United States for relief of disasters, and, except in the time of the Cuban War, no appeal for money was ever made to the public. As none of the officers of the Red Cross receive salaries, the freewill offerings of the people were sufficient.

At over eighty, still well and active, Miss Barton has organized and nationalized the work of the "First Aid to the Injured in America," of which she is president. This, as she says, is a movement in which even school children may learn to lessen the sufferings of others. Miss Barton's home at present is at Glen Echo, Maryland.

Topical Outline. — Sanitary Commission. Nurses and their work. Clara Barton in the Civil War. The Red Cross and its work. Later services of Clara Barton.

For Written Work. — I. Suppose you were a Civil War nurse, and write a letter giving your experience. II. Write imaginary experiences in a field hospital during the Cuban War.

Collateral Reading

History. — Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," pp. 381-393; 395-403; 413-418.

THE PERIOD OF TRANSITION AND DEVELOPMENT

WHEN the Civil War was over, two important questions had to be settled: What was to be done with the Confederate states? and What was to be done with the negroes? Congress disposed of the first by requiring those states to draw up new constitutions, in which they promised never again to secede. They were also required to give the negroes the right to vote, and to ratify new amendments to the United States Constitution. This had to be done before they could send representatives to Congress.

In January, 1863, the Emancipation Proclamation freed the slaves in the states still under arms against the government. Of course that was not sufficient, so the Thirteenth Amendment was passed, freeing all slaves, and prohibiting slavery forever in the territory governed by the United States.

Freeing people who had no knowledge of the responsibilities of life or liberty, naturally led to crime. As slaves, they had never been obliged to provide for themselves or for their families, and many did not know how to go to work to earn a living, so they stole to keep from starving. When brought to trial, the negro had no money to pay his fine. He feared imprisonment, so when a white man offered to pay his fine the negro eagerly agreed to work for him for an indefinite period. In some cases he bound himself to work three or four years for the payment of a fifty dollar fine. The

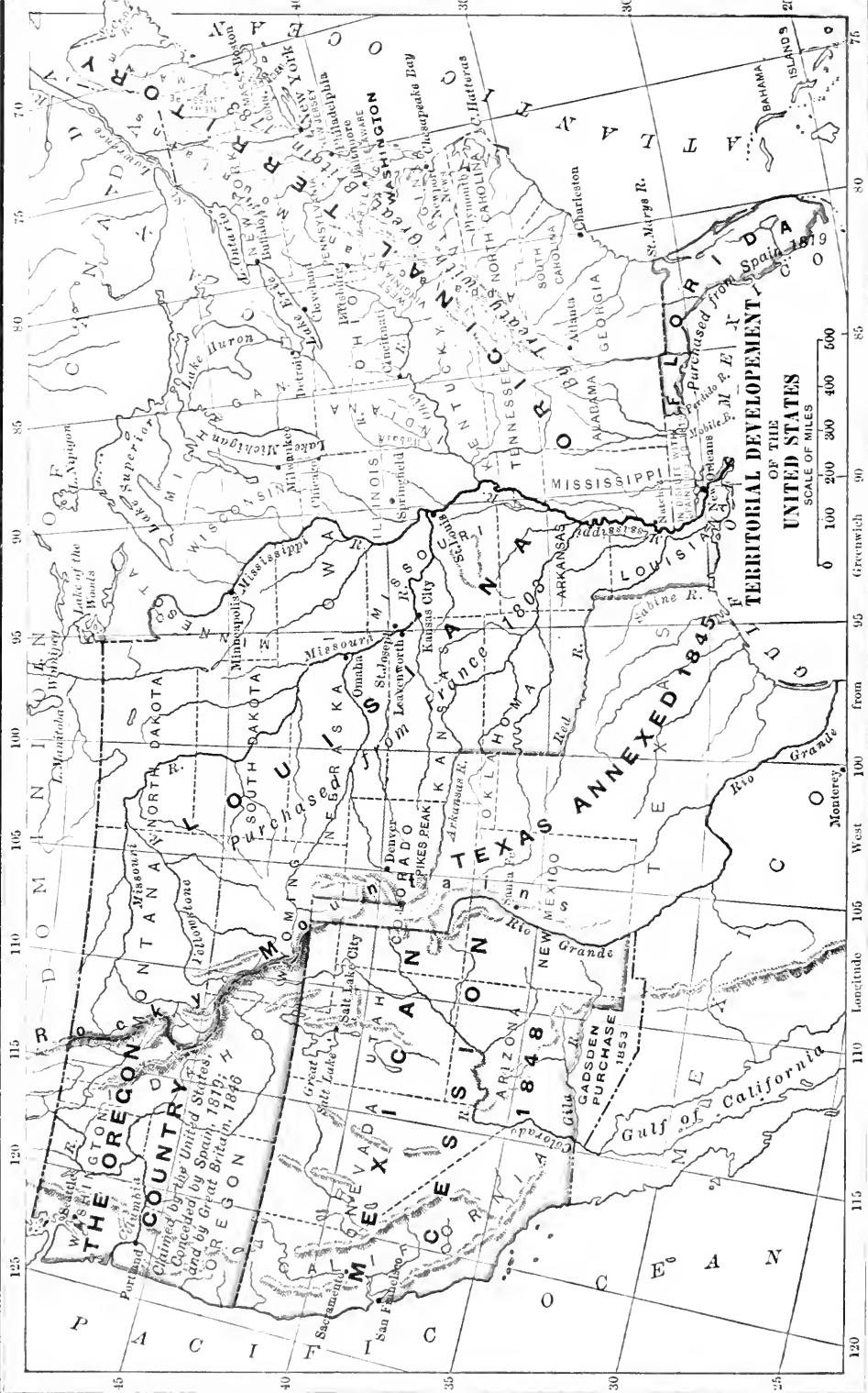
Southern planters needed workmen, and in this way often got them very cheap. Congress believed that they were violating the Thirteenth Amendment, so a Civil Rights Bill was passed. Also the Fourteenth Amendment was added to the Constitution, giving to the negroes or freedmen the rights of citizenship.

As the slaves had been freed and made citizens, they would now be counted in apportioning representatives in Congress. This and the fact that the states had been required to give them the right to vote, led to the Fifteenth Amendment. It says, "the right to vote shall not be denied on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

Alabama Claims. — We recall that the *Alabama*, built in England, captured sixty-six merchant vessels before Captain Winslow of the *Kearsarge* destroyed her, off the coast of France. The United States government claimed that England had violated the laws governing neutral nations when she allowed the ship to be launched in an English shipyard. In 1872, by the Geneva Award, Great Britain agreed to pay \$15,500,000 to the United States for the damage done by Confederate cruisers. As the most famous of these was the *Alabama*, the suits brought by our government for damages are often called the Alabama Claims.

Purchase of Alaska. — Alaska had been discovered and explored in the middle of the eighteenth century by Russians. The Russian government gave its control to a fur trading company, whose charter expired in 1867. Then the United States bought it for \$7,200,000, or about two cents an acre. This was our last great acquisition of territory on the American continent. Earlier acquisitions are shown on the map on the following page.

Growth of Railroads. — After the discovery of gold in Cal-



ifornia there was a great demand for railroads across the continent, but the Civil War interrupted the work for a few years. In 1870 the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific were completed, and the Northern Pacific begun. These roads with others and their many branches have brought the cities of the Pacific Coast within five days of those of the Atlantic Coast.

Immigration and Growth of Cities. — At the close of the war there was a great increase in immigration. While only about 90,000 foreigners came to this country in 1861, nearly 500,000 came in 1873. The building of railroads, rapid growth of industries, and general prosperity caused a steady increase, until, in 1907, nearly 1,300,000 came. Many of these people settled in the cities.

Another reason for the growth of cities lies in the fact that the machines saving agricultural labor must be made in factories and foundries in cities. So we find that as fewer men are needed to work on the farms, they flock to the cities and work in shops. These labor-saving machines, and the application of steam and electricity, have brought about great industrial changes. People can enjoy more luxuries with less hard work than formerly.

CYRUS HALL McCORMICK AND THE REAPER

Until nearly the middle of the nineteenth century the implements used for cutting grass and grain were the sickle, scythe, and cradle. In each case the work was slow, one man being able to cut little more than an acre in a day. This was a great disadvantage, for grass and grain are injured by rains, which in many countries are liable to occur at the harvesting season. Another disadvantage

was that it required men to exercise violently in the fields at a time when heat is almost unbearable.

Some attempts had been made to construct a machine to do this work, but until 1831 nothing had been made that worked well. Robert McCormick, a Virginia farmer, had before 1817 invented several labor-saving farm tools, but he failed to make a machine to cut grain. He had a little son, who played around his shop, watching these efforts and listening to the conversation on the difficulties of the problem. This boy, years later, succeeded in doing what his father had failed to do.

Cyrus Hall McCormick was born February 15, 1809, just three days after the birth of Abraham Lincoln. His childhood was spent in a home of great comfort, and he received the best of training from parents of fine Christian character. At fifteen, young Cyrus began to experiment on a reaper, using the parts cast aside by his father. At twenty-two, he had built a machine that worked well.

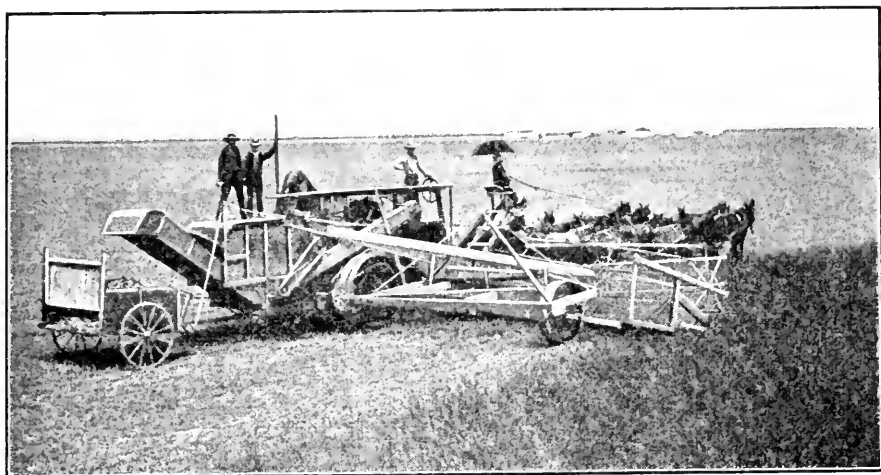
The first reaper was a simple affair, but it possessed the essential features of the later machines. Unlike some built in earlier times, that clipped off the heads of the grain, this cut the straw close to the ground. There was no seat for the driver, so he rode on one of the horses; and a man walked beside the reaper to rake the grain from the platform after it was cut. McCormick was not satisfied with this model of 1831, so he made many improvements before he asked for a patent, three years later.

He built no reapers to sell until 1840, but from that time the demand for them increased rapidly. In 1844 some machines made by the McCormick Brothers in Virginia were sold to western farmers, and were shipped by water from Richmond to New Orleans, then up the Mississippi River to the Ohio.

This increased the expense and reduced the profits, so the McCormicks moved to Chicago, within easy reach of the great wheat-raising farmers of the West.

The manufacturing establishment they founded there now covers an area of forty acres, employs 2500 men, and makes over 200,000 machines each year, to be sold in every country of the world.

There have been many improvements on the original



McCormick Harvester

machine. Since 1835 the government of the United States has granted over 20,000 patents for modifications. There are harvesters used on some western farms which combine the reaper, binder, thresher, fanning mill, sacker, and straw carrier. They are propelled by traction engines or by thirty or thirty-six horses. They can cut from sixty to one hundred and twenty-five acres, and thresh from seventeen hundred to three thousand bushels of grain in a day. Those using steam-power require seven men, while four men can manage the horse-power harvesters. Such monster machines are not

in common use. The average reaper saves the labor of seven or eight men.

Wheat is the most important food product in the world. When wheat is cheap, bread is cheap. The price of wheat depends largely on the supply. Labor-saving machines have made great production possible. In some sections where a farmer could formerly harvest barely ten acres in a season, a hundred or two can now be harvested.

Mr. McCormick, who invented the reaper, was also a great benefactor in other ways. He made large sums of money from his business, but he did not keep it all for himself. He founded a theological seminary for the Presbyterian Church. He gave generously to charity and religious publications. He lived to be an old man, and saw the great changes that came as the result of his invention.

Topical Outline. — Early methods of cutting grain. Robert McCormick's attempts to make a reaper. Success was won by Cyrus McCormick in 1831. First machine sent west. McCormicks located in Chicago. A modern reaper. Benefits.

For Written Work. — I. Describe a reaper you have seen cutting grain. II. Show how a poor man in the city may be benefited by a reaper.

Map Work. — Locate on the map the states where the reaper does its greatest work.

Collateral Reading

Biography. — Mowry, "American Inventions and Inventors," pp. 117-123; Hubert, "Inventors," pp. 207-223; Williams, "Some Successful Americans," pp. 79-89.

MORSE AND OTHER INVENTORS

FROM the earliest times people have felt the need of sending messages from place to place more quickly than it would be possible to travel the same distance. Such need led to the adoption of various methods of signaling. One method most widely used was that of the beacon-light or a signal-fire by night or a column of smoke by day. Early settlers in America, when in need of help in case of Indian attacks, usually built a fire on a hill. In the Revolution the action of the enemy was made known miles away by the successive lighting of signal-fires. By day, mirrors reflecting sunlight were used in a similar way. The semaphore was long used. This is an upright standard with one or more arms that can be moved into positions representing letters or figures, corresponding to the code of the communicating parties.

The firing of cannon placed at intervals limited by the range of sound has also been used. But a more secret method and one that also allows an extended message and its reply, is the signaling with flags. A code understood by the communicating parties is followed in the color and waving of these flags.

All such devices seem poor in these days of the telephone and wireless telegraph. Yet our present conveniences have not long been enjoyed, and they have all grown out of the work of Professor Morse.

Samuel Finley Breese Morse was born near Bunker Hill battle ground in 1791. His father was a Congregational

minister who had been a college professor, and was related to many scholarly men. The little boy early showed a very bright mind. He was sent to school at the age of four. His first teacher was known as "Old Ma'am Rand," who was lame and could not leave her chair, but she had a whip long enough to reach every boy in the room. Professor Morse tells us that he was often pinned to her dress, to punish him for drawing pictures instead of studying his lessons.

He was later sent to one of the famous boys' schools in New England, and then to Yale college, from which he was graduated at the age of nineteen. The year after graduation, he went to England to study painting, and there he received much help and inspiration from the great artist, West, who had been so good a friend to Robert Fulton.

Finley Morse, as he was called, had much ability, and was remarkably successful in his art work. When he was only twenty-two, he received a gold medal from the Royal Academy for his first attempt at sculpture, which was called *The Dying Hercules*. Several of his paintings received generous praise from the critics during his four years' stay in England.

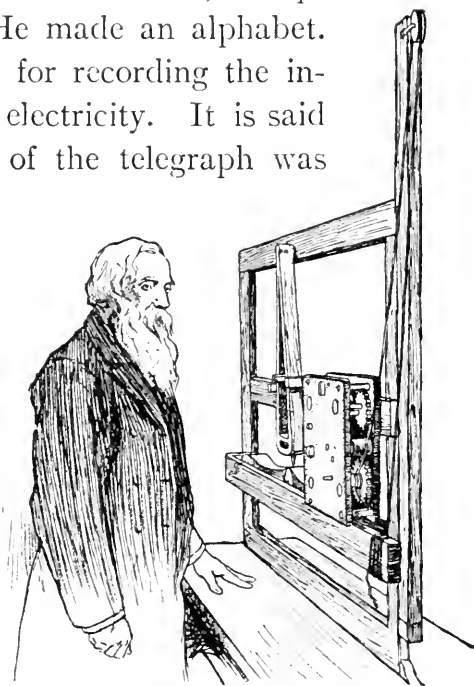
In 1815 his father died, and he was obliged to return to America. For several years he spent all his time painting portraits, among which was one of Lafayette, done while the great Frenchman was in this country in 1825. After this, Morse spent a few years in Europe, copying in the famous galleries and studying under the great teachers of England and France.

While in Europe Morse had learned much about the electro-magnet. As you know, Franklin had made some valuable experiments with electricity a century before, but thus far little had been accomplished in controlling and using an electric current. As a student, Morse had been greatly

interested in the subject of electricity, and now the old interest was revived by talk about the electro-magnet.

In 1832, while on shipboard returning from Europe, he became greatly absorbed in the idea of possible communication by means of an electric current. It was well known that a current interrupted in its circuit produced a spark. His first thought was to use, in combinations, the spark, its absence, and the duration of its absence, to represent letters and words. He made an alphabet. Then he devised a machine for recording the interruptions of the current of electricity. It is said that the fundamental idea of the telegraph was worked out on that voyage. It took him, however, twelve years to put that idea into practical use.

On his arrival in New York, Morse became professor of art literature in the University of the City of New York. Although the duties of his profession were along a different line of thought, he continued his experiments with the



Morse and his First Telegraphic Instrument

telegraph. His great difficulty was the lack of money. People were slow to lend it, because they did not understand the science underlying his idea. It was also a difficult thing to explain without actual demonstration, which costs money. But from 1832 to 1843, although Professor Morse was so very poor that he had to deny himself and his family

often the necessities of life, he persevered in his experiments.

He applied to Congress for help. A bill was introduced in the House of Representatives, appropriating \$30,000 to be used by Morse in completing his experiments to prove that messages could be sent by electricity. Morse believed that if a message could be sent ten miles, it could be sent a thousand. Many men in speaking on the bill ridiculed it bitterly, but Morse and his friends succeeded in influencing enough men to pass it. For many days the Senate gave no attention to it. In fact, at the beginning of the evening session of the last day before adjournment in March, 1843, there were 119 bills to be acted upon before this one. Morse went to his hotel utterly discouraged. The next morning he was surprised to be told that the bill had passed the Senate five minutes before closing. This assured him of the government's support to the extent of \$30,000.

Morse and his friends then worked rapidly, and by May 24, 1844, a line connecting Washington and Baltimore was ready to be tested. Morse was in the office in Washington, and a helper was at Baltimore. In each place were visitors. The daughter of a friend was asked to give a message. She replied, "What hath God wrought!" This was clicked over the wires. Then others asked questions and received answers from Baltimore. Some of the visitors believed, but others were mystified and regarded it as a hoax.

The first important news transmitted by the electric telegraph was a report of the proceedings of the Democratic convention of 1844 in Baltimore. After Polk was nominated for President, the telegraph was used to notify Mr. Silas Wright in Washington that he had been nominated for Vice President. Mr. Wright declined the nomination.

When his telegram was read to the convention, they decided to adjourn until a committee could go to Washington to see Mr. Wright in person. When that committee returned to give Mr. Wright's answer, just as it had been telegraphed the day before, the men were convinced that the telegraph was a great invention. People who knew little about electricity had queer notions about how a message was sent. Some even looked to see it going along the wires.

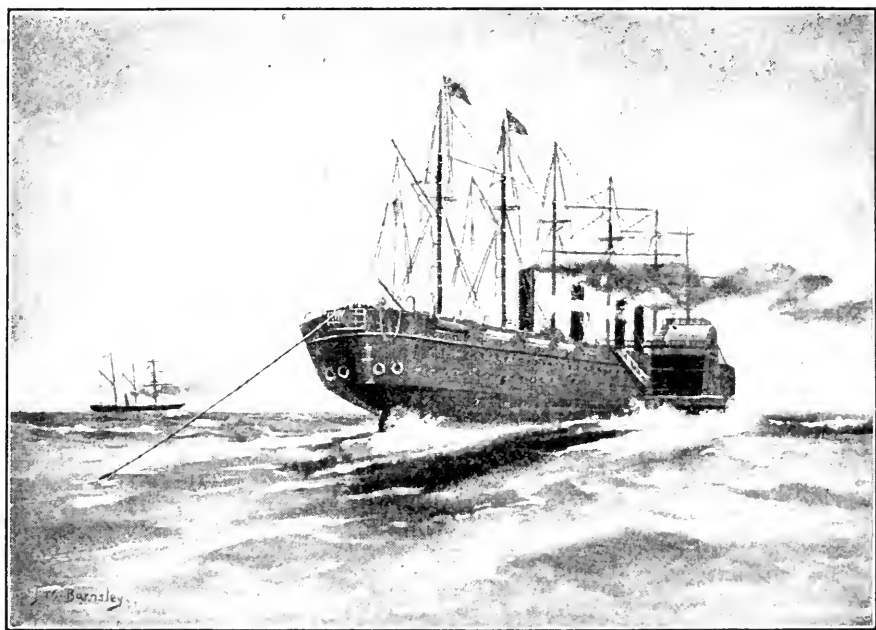
Lines were rapidly put up, connecting the large cities, but men said that the wire would cost more than could be collected by sending messages. This seemed likely at first, for one day only twelve cents was taken in; the seventh day, sixty cents; the eighth day, one dollar and thirty cents was received. Since then, however, fabulous sums have been made by the telegraph companies. Professor Morse wanted to sell his rights to the government, but the government did not dare to buy.

Professor Morse became a rich man, but he was rewarded also in other ways for his years of labor, poverty, and disappointment. The King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria each gave him a gold medal for his services to civilization. Ten European governments, represented in Paris in 1858, made up a purse of \$80,000 as an expression of their appreciation of his services to the world.

In June, 1871, there was unveiled a statue of Professor Morse, erected in Central Park, New York, at the expense of the telegraph operators of the country. Delegates were present from every state in the Union, and from the provinces of Canada. In the evening a great meeting was held in the Academy of Music. A telegraph instrument on the stage was in connection with every one of the 10,000 instruments in America. An operator stepped to the key and sent this

message: "Greetings and thanks to the telegraph fraternity throughout the world. Glory to God in the highest; peace, good will to men." Then Professor Morse stepped forward and, touching the key, sent out "S. F. B. Morse."

His last public appearance was on February 22, 1872, when he unveiled the statue to Franklin in Printing House Square, New York. He lived to see the valuable fruits of his labor.



Laying the Atlantic Cable (1866)

Not only was his invention then used by the whole civilized world, but it was regarded as absolutely necessary.

Professor Morse early believed that messages could be sent under water as well as on land. He tried some experiments to prove this, but he willingly left the task of connecting America and Europe to younger men. To Cyrus W. Field belongs the honor of laying the first Atlantic cable, after many unsuccessful attempts. In August, 1858, two ships carrying

miles of cable sailed to mid ocean. There the ends of the cable were spliced, and the ships parted and sailed in opposite directions, one to Ireland and the other to Newfoundland, where the ends were connected with instruments. On August 16 this message was sent: "Europe and America are united by telegraph." A greeting from Queen Victoria to the President and his reply were sent. But a few days later the cable failed to work. It had broken, as had happened during many other attempts to lay cables.

The Civil War came, and all attempts to lay another cable were given up. The summer after the war was over, the work was renewed, and in July, 1866, two cables were successfully laid. Since then all parts of the world have been brought into communication by telegraph and cable, both of which are of great importance to the business and general welfare of nations.

It was discovered in the early days of the telegraph that sounds were conveyed by the wires. This led to experiments on a telephone, which in 1876 was completed successfully, and was first publicly exhibited at the Centennial at Philadelphia. This was accomplished by the patient and persistent efforts of Alexander Graham Bell, then a teacher of visible speech to the deaf and dumb. He strung a wire between the first and fourth floors of his house, and devised a receiver and a transmitter that worked well. Men who saw it said that it would not work well out of doors, so the next task was to prove that it would. Short distance lines proved successful. Now many thousand miles of telephone wires are stretched throughout the country. A business man in New York can call up another in Chicago and complete an important piece of business in a few minutes.

The reproduction or transmission of the human voice,

recognizable many miles away, seemed really the limit of wonders, but greater things have been achieved. Now telegraph messages are sent without wires. There was a time when an ocean voyage meant being cut off from home news for at least a week. Now many steamships are equipped with wireless machinery, and are in communication with points on both sides of the water and with passing ships. To the young Italian, Marconi, belongs the credit for this last great invention.

These improved methods of communication have been of untold benefit to the world. Each one cost years of hard labor, sacrifices, and much discouragement, but the result has been abundantly worth the efforts.

Topical Outline. — Methods of signaling. Morse as a boy and a painter. Interest in electricity. Twelve years experimenting on the telegraph. First line operated in 1844. Atlantic cable laid by Field in 1858. Telephone invented by Bell in 1876. Wireless telegraph by Marconi in 1902.

For Written Work. — I. Write a paragraph on whichever of these inventions you think the greatest. II. Describe in full the workings of one of these methods of communication.



Instrument for sending Telegrams

EDISON AND THE ELECTRIC LIGHT

PROBABLY one of the earliest forms of artificial light was the torch, or burning stick, such as a pine knot. This did very well for use in the open air, but produced too much smoke to be pleasant for house use. The Greeks and Romans used a simple lamp in the form of a covered cup with a small opening through which a piece of cloth was drawn. The lamp was filled with olive oil, and the piece of cloth served as a wick.

In the colonial days of our country the tallow candle was chiefly used. The candle of tallow or wax has been widely used for centuries, and is popular to-day for decorations. The first lamps of modern days were filled with whale oil, but about the middle of the nineteenth century this was displaced by kerosene, which is much used to-day. The next step in advance was the introduction of illuminating gas, and men thought the perfect light had at last been found, but electricity in some respects is much better. The incandescent light so familiar to us is of recent invention. It is one of many devices invented by Thomas A. Edison.

Edison, as he is usually called, was born in Ohio, February 11, 1847. His parents were poor, and the boy is said to have had only two months of school life. His mother, however, was an intelligent woman, and she taught him to read and laid the foundations for the excellent work which he later did for himself. If ever there was a self-educated man,

Edison is a good example, for he is essentially well educated without having been to school.

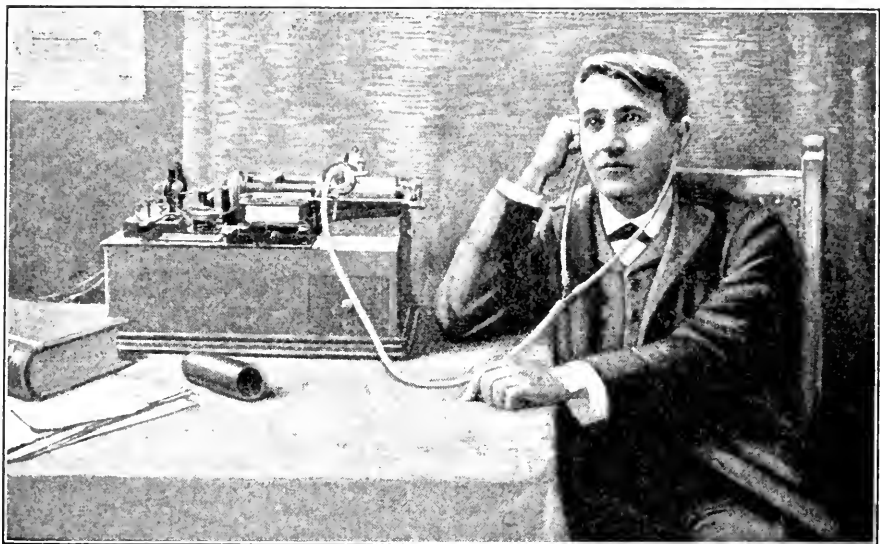
At the age of twelve, he became a newsboy on the Grand Trunk and Michigan Central Railroad, running from Toronto to Port Huron, Michigan. He sold papers and candy, and kept his eyes and ears open. He learned much from what he saw and heard, and he read everything that seemed to him worth reading. The story is told that he made up his mind to read a whole library. He selected a shelf and read every book in turn until he had devoured the contents of all standing on fifteen feet of shelving.

His chief interest was in chemistry. He said he came to know every word in his first textbook on chemistry. But he was never satisfied merely to read about experiments. He rigged up a corner of the baggage car as a laboratory. Here he also printed a little sheet, "The Grand Trunk Herald," with type thrown away by a printing house. The paper contained railroad news, and both trainmen and travelers cheerfully bought it.

Edison says that at the beginning of the Civil War he was working very hard but making little money. He had to be careful to get no more papers than he could sell, and on the other hand he wanted enough to meet the demand. This led him to study the headlines in estimating the number he could sell. Then it occurred to him to telegraph bits of war news to stations ahead of his train. The operator wrote these on a bulletin, and by the time Edison's train arrived crowds were calling for papers.

Telegraphy had a peculiar fascination for him. He knew all the operators along his route, and he wanted to learn the business, but he could not afford to stop work and pay for lessons. Fortune favored him when he least expected it. He

saved a small child from being run over by an approaching train, and the grateful father, who was an operator, taught young Edison without pay. At fifteen he became an operator. When still a young man he invented a repeating instrument, a device by which a message could be forwarded on a second line without the presence of an operator. A little later he invented the famous duplex which made possible the sending of two messages over the wire at the



Edison and the Phonograph

same time. This has been modified and improved so that to-day the same wire can be used for four or six messages at once.

He is by nature an inventor. He makes this distinction between discovery and invention. "In a discovery there will be an element of the accidental. In my own case but few, and those the least important of my inventions, owed anything to accident. Most of them have been hammered out after long and patient labor, and are the result of count-

less experiments all directed toward some well determined object." Back in the days of the baggage-car laboratory he was not content to read about a battery, but he set to work and made one. It has been his good fortune that he is also a genius in mechanics. He has the skill to express an idea in material form. For example, he had an idea that a record of sounds uttered by the human voice could be made and preserved, so that the sounds could be reproduced at a later time. His mechanical skill served him in the actual construction of a contrivance carrying out that idea, and we have as a result the phonograph.

Many scientists had worked on the problem of electric lighting. The arc light involved less difficulty than the incandescent lamp, which is a coil of wire in a glass bulb from which the air has been exhausted. Inventors failed with this at first because of the expense and its uncertainty. Edison mastered the difficulties, at the expense of much money, time, and patience. Every possible material was tried, and hundreds of lamps were kept burning and were carefully studied in order to determine just what conditions produced the best and most lasting light. To-day millions of people are enjoying the benefits. The light is clean, bright, odorless, and produces little heat. This can be said of no other mode of lighting houses.

Edison's inventions patented by the United States government number nearly eight hundred. He has made a great deal of money, but he still finds his greatest pleasure in his laboratory experiments. His laboratory at West Orange, New Jersey, is the finest in the world. In one room twenty feet square are instruments that cost \$18,000. In the storeroom are to be found every known metal, every chemical, every kind of glass, stone, wood, fiber, paper, and skin that can

be used in experiments. The supplies in this room are valued at \$100,000. This complete assortment of materials is kept to prevent delay in securing any substance at a critical time of experimentation.

Edison has as his helpers the most skillful men to be found. When a man in any of the great establishments with which he is connected shows marked ability, he tests him and gives him special advantages. This often results in the addition of the man to the force of helpers at West Orange.

In appearance Edison is of medium height and compactly built. His hair is quite gray, but his smooth-shaven face is fresh and boyish. His eyes are clear and steady, and, as he is somewhat deaf, he appears to listen with his eyes. He cares little for dress or personal luxury, but has a very beautiful home because he considers the happiness of his family. He is very patient with visitors and particularly kind and encouraging to boys who show mechanical genius.

Edison is regarded as America's greatest inventor and one of the greatest men of genius of this age. Although he started with but two months of schooling, he has succeeded because of his powers of application and concentration, persistent effort, and hard labor.

The inventions by Morse, Edison, and Marconi are supplemented by the improved method of printing that brings the news to the masses of people. As you may know, Benjamin Franklin's press could print but one page at a time, and was worked by turning a crank by hand. To-day, through the inventions of Richard M. Hoe, there are presses run by 125 horse power of electricity, that print in an hour 280 miles of paper the width of a newspaper. In other words, they turn out in an hour 96,000 sixteen-page papers, or 48,000 thirty-two-page papers, all folded, pasted, and counted.

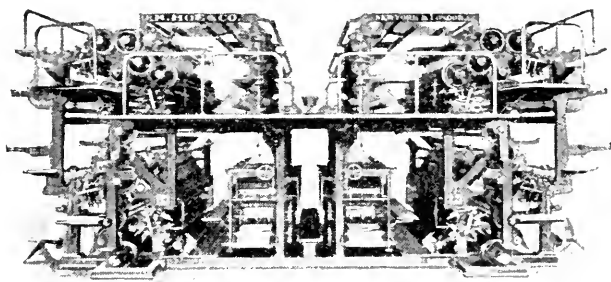
Topical Outline. — Early forms of lighting: torch, candle, lamp Edison; newsboy and telegraph operator. Experiments on incandescent lamp. Characteristics of the man. Services.

For Written Work. — I. Describe a phonograph. II. Write on other uses of the incandescent lamp besides that of house-lighting. III. Write on any other things you have read about Edison.

Collateral Reading

History. — Eggleston, "Stories of American Life and Adventure," pp. 66-74; Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," pp. 220-223; Earle, "Home Life in Colonial Days," pp. 32-51.

Biography. — Mowry, "American Inventions and Inventors," pp. 67-89, 265-294; Hubert, "Inventors," pp. 111-155, 223-270.



Modern Printing Press

ADMIRAL DEWEY AND THE SPANISH WAR

SPANISH rule in Cuba for many years had been so cruel and oppressive that the island was in a constant state of rebellion. In 1895 part of the Cuban people succeeded in setting up a native government. Spain, fearing the consequences, sent over a governor general who employed more oppressive measures than had formerly been used. He drove the farmers into the

towns to live, and then he destroyed their crops and buildings. This deprived the Cuban army of the food supplies usually furnished by

the farmers. When the country people reached the towns, they were compelled to live in most unsanitary conditions, and were allowed little and poor food.

The people of the United States were shocked at such treatment, and indignantly demanded that Spain should be more humane in dealing with the Cubans. Finally, our government sent the battleship *Maine* to Havana harbor because, in such troublous times, American citizens and American interests in Cuba were likely to suffer.

On the night of February 15, 1898, this battleship was blown up and 266 lives were lost. Many Americans believed



West Indies

the Spanish authorities were responsible for the outrage. The government tried to make a peaceable settlement with Spain, but failed. On April 11, President McKinley, in a special message to Congress, said, "In the name of humanity and civilization, the war in Cuba must stop." Congress



The Philippines

declared war against Spain April 25, and the commander farthest from home won the first victory. This was Commodore Dewey, who was in command of an American fleet temporarily stationed at Hongkong, China.

George Dewey was born in Montpelier, Vermont, in December, 1837, and was graduated from the United States Naval Academy in 1858. In 1861 he was commissioned lieutenant and served under Admiral Faragut in the Mississippi campaign in 1862-63. Later in the

war, he served in the North Atlantic blockading squadron.

After the Civil War, Dewey received in turn the ranks of Commander, Captain, and Commodore, and served in many waters. In January, 1898, he was given command of the Asiatic squadron, "An assignment then considered but little short of exile," says Lodge.

After the destruction of the *Maine*, when war with Spain seemed probable, Commodore Dewey under orders of our government began to prepare his vessels for active service in the harbor of Hongkong. When war was declared, he was ordered to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet in the

Philippine waters. This was very necessary, for otherwise it was thought these ships might attack the American cities on the Pacific coast.

One of Commodore Dewey's striking characteristics was his readiness to meet an emergency. His men were under splendid discipline; his ships were in good shape and well supplied for action. Five days after war was declared, Dewey's fleet had traveled over six hundred miles, and on the night of April 30th was steaming into Manila Bay, where he knew the Spanish squadron was to be found.

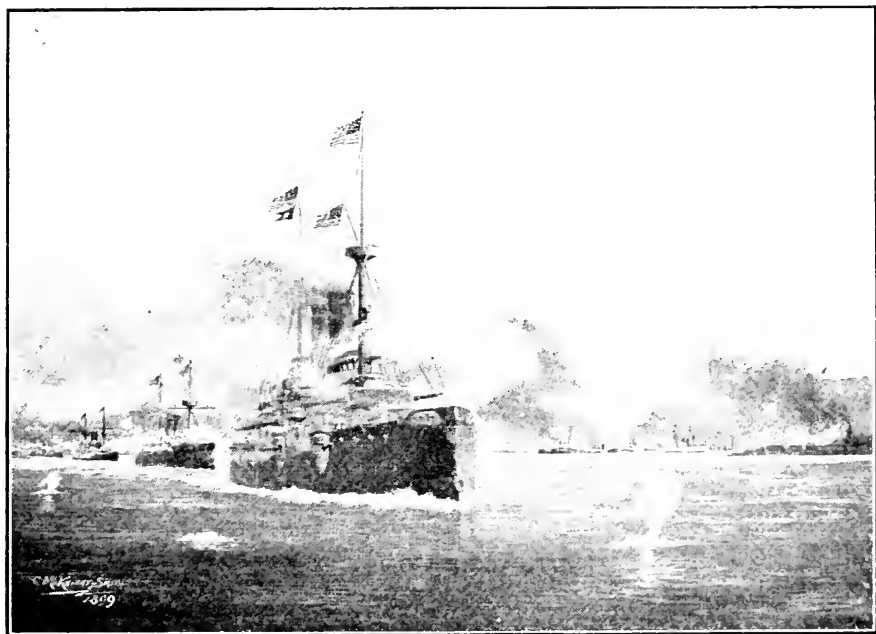
The American fleet consisted of nine swift, well-armed ships, but not one of them was armor-clad. At the entrance to the bay lie two islands on which were strong fortifications, but, like Farragut of old, Dewey took his chances in passing these forts. The night was dark, not a light was visible, and not a sound could be heard save the throbbing of the engines. The flagship *Olympia* took the lead, and the other ships silently followed in line. They were well in the channel before they were discovered. A few shots were exchanged; then came quiet, and daylight found Dewey's fleet far up the bay.

Manila Bay is about thirty miles long. Manila is twenty-six miles and Cavite is sixteen miles from the entrance to the bay. Close under the batteries of Cavite lay the Spanish fleet. As Senator Lodge says, "The moment had come. It came fortunately to a man who knew exactly what he meant to do. . . . Commodore Dewey had his plan thoroughly laid out, and now proceeded to carry it into execution."

The Commodore got his two supply boats into a safe position, and then his fleet moved past Cavite. Two or three mines exploded, but did no injury. The Spanish batteries

and ships fired, but the Americans had been instructed "to hold fire until close in." When within a little less than three miles of the Spanish ships. Dewey said to the Captain of the *Olympia*, "If you are ready, Gridley, you may fire." Then the signal went up, "Fire as convenient." This was followed by the order, "Open with all the guns."

The American ships, firing deadly broadsides, passed and repassed the Spanish fleet five times, each time a little nearer



Battle of Manila Bay

than before. The Spanish flagship bravely darted out toward the *Olympia*, but the storm of shot directed on her tore up her deck and exploded her boilers, killing 150 of her crew. Several other ships that ventured out were treated in a similar way.

After two hours, Commodore Dewey gave the signal to cease firing and follow the flagship. They moved toward the

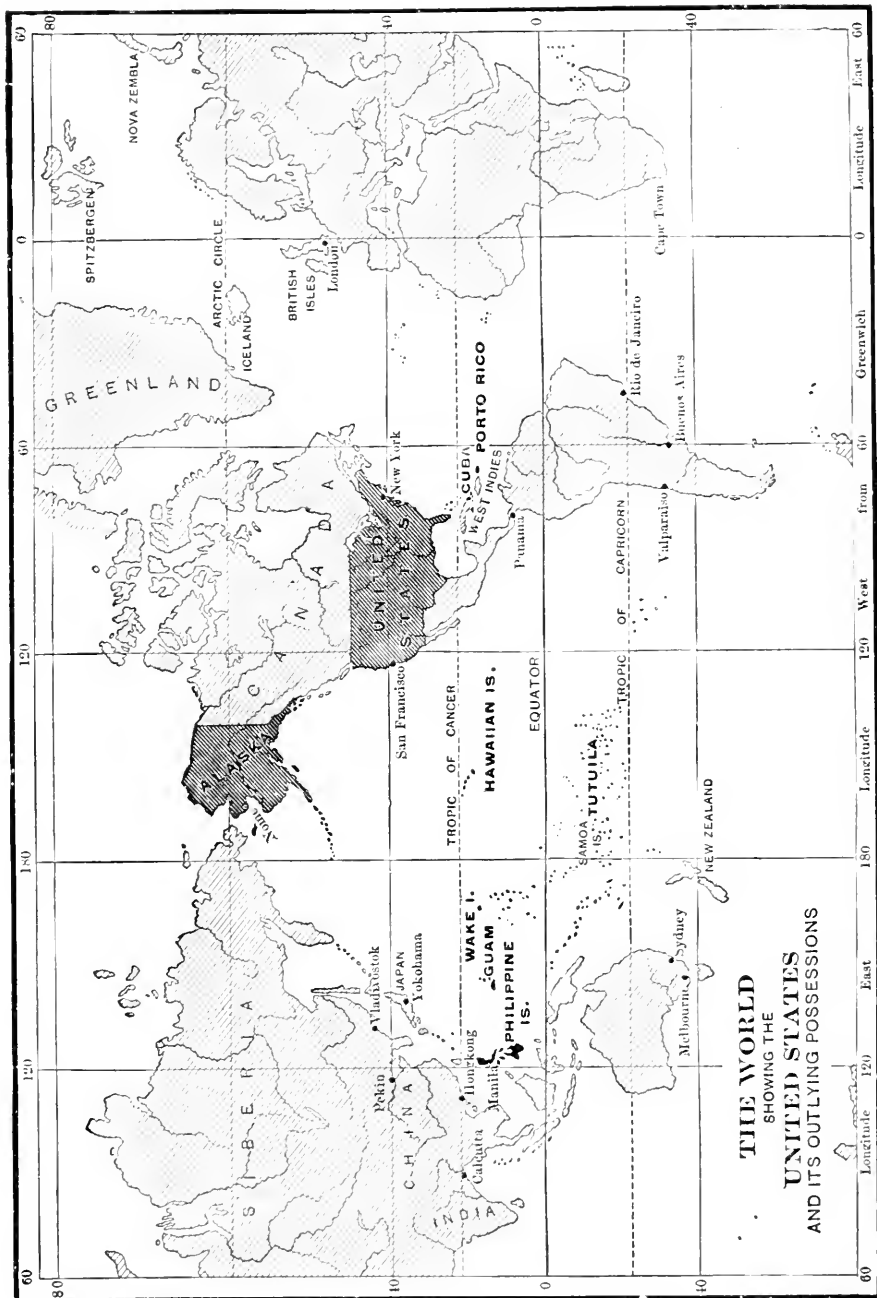
opposite side of the bay, where they ate breakfast, cleaned the decks, and rested. Three hours later, at a quarter before eleven, the battle was renewed; and it ended early in the afternoon with the complete destruction of the Spanish fleet. After raising the white flag, the Spanish admiral fled to Manila. Soon the shore batteries were silenced. Dewey's orders had been to capture or destroy the fleet. He had completely destroyed it without the loss of a ship or of a man, and only eight of his men had been at all injured. A little later an army was sent to take possession of Manila.

Senator Lodge says, "The secret of this great victory was in the accuracy and rapidity of the American gunners. This great quality was not accidental, but due to skill, practice, and national aptitude. In addition to this traditional skill was the genius of the commander, backed by the fighting capacity of his captains and his crews." The same qualities were shown two months later in the destruction of the other Spanish fleet off Santiago.

In recognition of Dewey's services, Congress voted him a \$10,000 sword, and the rank of Admiral was revived and conferred upon him. On September 26, 1899, he arrived in New York in his famous flagship *Olympia*, and received the grandest reception ever given to a public officer. The demonstration included a naval parade on September 29, and a land parade the following day.

As a result of this war with Spain, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were ceded to the United States, and Cuba was granted independence under the protection of our government.

Topical Outline. — Spanish oppression in Cuba. Destruction of the *Maine*. War declared. Dewey ordered to capture or destroy the



Asiatic fleet of Spain. Battle of Manila. Santiago victory. Dewey's return. Results of the war.

For Written Work. — I. As one of the crew of the *Olympia*, describe that Sunday morning's work in Manila Bay. II. Describe another event of this war, that you have read about elsewhere.

Map Work. — Locate Hongkong, Manila Bay, Santiago.

For Collateral Reading. — Johnson, "The Hero of Manila."

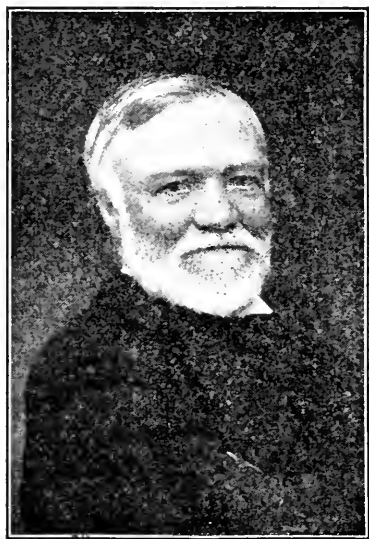


Scene in the Philippines

ANDREW CARNEGIE — THE PHILANTHROPIST

THERE is a man known and respected by all Americans, who was neither a soldier nor inventor, but a successful business man and philanthropist. The life of this man

should be an inspiration to every ambitious boy, for all his wealth has come from his own work.



Andrew Carnegie

Andrew Carnegie was born at Dunfermline,¹ Scotland, November 25, 1837. His father was a master weaver, and his mother a thrifty housewife, who found time to give her boys the best of care and training. She taught Andrew at home until he was eight, when he was sent to a public school. The schoolmaster began the day's work with a scripture lesson, and the boys were once

asked to give a text from the Proverbs of Solomon. Now Andy had been well instructed in the Bible, but that morning, when his turn came, he responded with, "Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves." This shows that his mother began early to start her boy on the road to become a rich man.

¹ In Fife County, north of the Firth of Forth; a few miles northwest of Edinburgh.

Andrew's father was a prosperous weaver; he had four damask-looms and kept several apprentices. But early in the 'forties, machines rapidly displaced the hand looms, and one day, when Andrew was ten, his father announced that there was no more work for him. It was a serious prospect, for everywhere in England and Scotland were the same conditions.

They decided to move to America. As some relatives had previously settled in Pittsburg, the Carnegies went directly to that city on their arrival in 1848. The father found work in a cotton mill, and Andrew became a bobbin boy at \$1.20 a week. He says that although he has handled many millions of dollars since, no money has ever given him so much pleasure as that dollar and twenty cents at the end of a hard week's work of twelve-hour days. He shared in the expenses of the family, and formed the habit of saving a little each week.

The next year he fired an engine in a factory at an increase of pay, but the work was distasteful to him. He was on the lookout for something better, and within a year had work as a telegraph messenger boy at \$2.50 a week. This delighted him because he could be out of doors. But he met difficulties, for he did not know the city. So this fourteen-year-old boy set to work committing to memory the location of every prominent business house, until he could close his eyes and tell exactly where each was located. He says, however, that one difficulty of the business he failed to master. It was the custom, if anything was the matter, to send one of the boys up a telegraph pole, to repair the wire. Carnegie says he tried his best to climb one of those poles, but failed.

He had been employed as a messenger but one month when he began to learn telegraphy. He used his spare time at the instruments, and, from the first, trained himself to receive by

sound instead of by reading the tape. At sixteen, he was an operator. He was thorough and exact in all he did, and men sought him for these special qualities. Newspaper men asked him to prepare "copy" of news received over the wire. This gratified a peculiar desire he had to write for publication, and it added a little to his income.

Superintendent Scott of the Pittsburg Division of the Pennsylvania Railroad came to know his accuracy, and selected young Carnegie as the operator for his most important messages. In time Mr. Scott decided that Carnegie was just the kind of boy he wanted in his own office. During the period of Carnegie's work in the superintendent's office, there were many times when his integrity and good judgment were well tested. He did his work so well that he became superintendent himself when still very young.

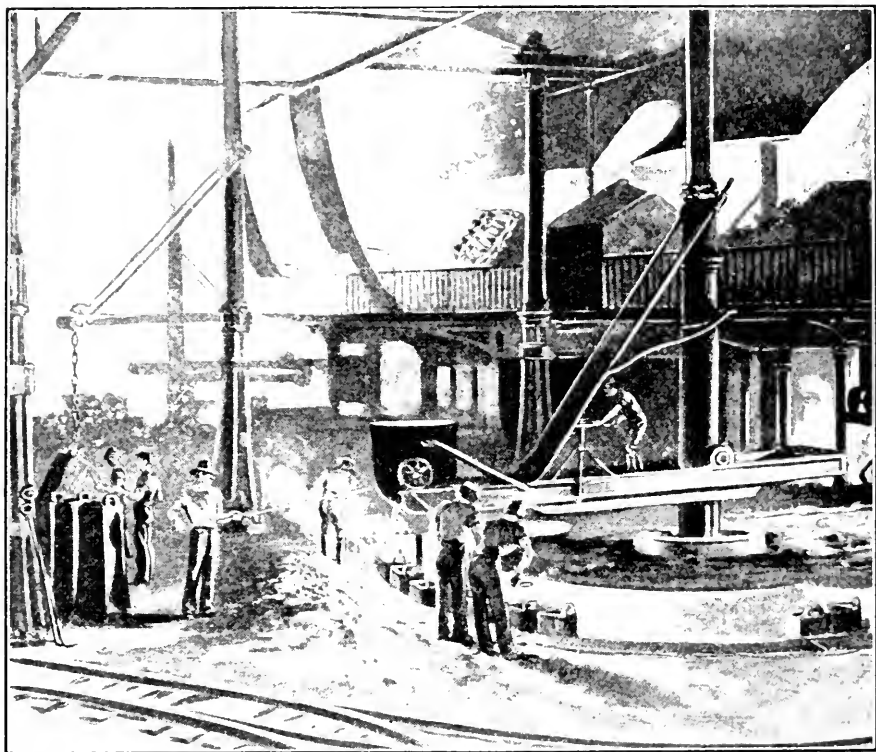
Each promotion after he was sixteen meant much, for Andrew's father had died, and, being the elder son, Andrew felt responsible for his mother's comfort. He was always devoted to his mother, and often says that he owes his success to her training when he was a child, and to her encouragement when he became a man.

When war broke out, Mr. Scott became Assistant Secretary of War, and Carnegie became Assistant Superintendent of Military Railroads and Telegraphs. Although he never enlisted, young Carnegie was the third man wounded. He was not wounded by a bullet, but by a bounding wire when he was working on a special telegraph line for receiving war news from the field. He sent messages to the War Department from the front, and devised a code for cipher dispatches. After one year of service, he and Mr. Scott returned to Pittsburg.

Soon after this, a man came to him one day with a model of a sleeping car. Carnegie saw at once that the idea was

good. He consulted Mr. Scott, and through their influence the Pennsylvania Railroad put on its line the first sleeping cars used in America. Carnegie invested in their manufacture, which proved to be a very profitable business.

When he became superintendent of the Pittsburg Division, the question of bridges occupied much of his thought.



Making Steel

Bridges of wood burned and decayed and were often washed away by the floods, and it was largely through him that iron bridges were substituted. He believed so thoroughly in the idea, that, as in the case of the sleeping cars, he became interested in their manufacture. The Keystone Bridge Company, of which he was a large stockholder, sold bridges all over the country.

Carnegie always had a desire to improve whatever he worked with. Realizing the superiority of steel over iron for many things, he set to work to make steel. Pittsburg is in the midst of a great iron-producing section. Carnegie established furnaces where steel is made by forcing powerful currents of air through molten iron to remove the carbon. For several years he was the leading figure in the steel-producing world.

Andrew Carnegie had many men in his employ, and his treatment of them is interesting. He had the reputation of paying the best wages in the country for the kind of work done, and long ago he favored an eight-hour day. He would have no laggards in his employ. He said he was willing to pay well for work, but not for loafing. He gave four million dollars for pensions to worthy men in his employ.

He is famous for his young men partners. He often took capable young men from the unskilled ranks and put them into places of responsibility. If they were successful, they were taken into partnership. Carnegie says that honesty, industry, and concentration are the qualities necessary for success in business. He himself is a good example of the practical value of these virtues, and they are possible to any boy.

Carnegie is a philanthropist as well as a good business man. His favorite benefaction is in the form of public libraries. He says this is prompted from his own experience. As a young boy he wanted books, but had few, until Colonel Anderson let him come to his private library and select books to take home and read. He regards that as one of the greatest privileges of his boyhood, and he is eager to put books within the reach of every poor boy to-day. Up to June,

1907, Carnegie had given away \$167,000,000, and about one third of this amount was for the founding of public libraries.

The story is told that, as a little boy in Dunfermline, he used to look through the iron fence into a private park and long to go in and play. When he became wealthy, he went back to Dunfermline, bought that park, and gave it to the town to be free for every one. The fine old mansion in the park was made into a clubhouse with reading rooms for old and young. He also gave \$10,000,000 for universities in Scotland. He built a beautiful castle near his boyhood home, and usually spends a part of each year there.

Mr. Carnegie is the author of several books, in one of which he says he believes that "the man who has neglected to help his fellows during life dies disgraced." He has enjoyed making money and possessing great wealth because of the good he can do with it. Although over seventy, he is still fond of outdoor life. He is also devoted to children. Men say that you cannot look into his face and catch the twinkle of his blue eyes without feeling that you would like to know him better.

Topical Outline. — Birthplace in Scotland. Boyhood of hard work. Became a telegraph operator. Service in war time. Maker of sleeping cars and iron bridges. Great steel industry. Generous gifts for public good.

For Written Work. — I. What do you particularly like about Mr. Carnegie? Give your reasons. II. Write a paragraph on the good of public libraries. III. Explain why honesty, industry, and concentration are necessary to business success.

Map Work. — Locate Dunfermline, Scotland; Pittsburg.

APPENDIX

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE—1776

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all hav-

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

ing in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained ; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise ; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States ; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined, with others, to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States :

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our consent :

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury :

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses :

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms : our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire

Josiah Bartlett,
Wm. Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay

Saml. Adams,
John Adams,
Robt. Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island

Step. Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut

Roger Sherman,
Sam'l Huntington,
Wm. Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New York

Wm. Floyd,
Phil. Livingston,
Frans. Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

New Jersey

Richd. Stockton,
Jno. Witherspoon,
Fras. Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abra. Clark.

Pennsylvania

Robt. Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benja. Franklin,
John Morton,
Geo. Clymer,
Jas. Smith,
Geo. Taylor,
James Wilson,
Geo. Ross.

Delaware

Cæsar Rodney,
Geo. Read,
Tho. M'Kean.

Maryland

Samuel Chase,
Wm. Paca,
Thos. Stone,

Charles Carroll of Car-
rollton.

Virginia

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Th Jefferson,
Benja. Harrison,
Thos. Nelson, jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

North Carolina

Wm. Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

South Carolina

Edward Rutledge,
Thos. Heyward, Junr.,
Thomas Lynch, Junr.,
Arthur Middleton.

Georgia

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
Geo. Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES—1787¹

WE the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. 1 The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2 No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3 Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons.² The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4 When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5 The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. 1 The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

¹ This reprint of the Constitution exactly follows the text of that in the Department of State at Washington, save in the spelling of a few words.

² The last half of this sentence was superseded by the 13th and 14th Amendments. (See p. 16 following.)

2 Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3 No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4 The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5 The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6 The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7 Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. 1 The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2 The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. 1 Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2 Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3 Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4 Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

SECTION 6. 1 The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2 No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. 1 All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2 Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3 Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. 1 The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2 To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3 To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4 To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5 To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6 To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7 To establish post offices and post roads;

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

8 To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries ;

9 To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court ;

10 To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations ;

11 To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water ;

12 To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years ;

13 To provide and maintain a navy ;

14 To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;

15 To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions ;

16 To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

17 To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,¹ and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings ; and

18 To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. 1 The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.²

2 The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3 No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4 No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5 No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6 No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another : nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7 No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law ; and a regular statement and account of the

¹ The District of Columbia, which comes under these regulations, had not then been erected.

² A temporary clause, no longer in force. See also Article V, p. 12 following.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8 No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION 10.¹ 1 No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2 No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3 No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. 1 The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows

2 Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate, shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice.

¹ See also the 10th, 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, pp. 15, 16 following.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.¹

3 The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4 No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5 In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6 The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7 Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—“I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION 2. 1 The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2 He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3 The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on

¹ This paragraph superseded by the 12th Amendment, p. 15 following.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. 1 The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;¹—between citizens of different States,—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

2 In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3 The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. 1 Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2 The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And

¹ See the 11th Amendment, p. 15 following.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. 1 The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2 A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3 No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.¹

SECTION 3. 1 New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2 The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

1 All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2 This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

¹ See the 13th Amendment, p. 16 following.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

3 The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States, and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution ; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names,

Go: WASHINGTON —

Presidt. and Deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

Massachusetts

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

Connecticut

Wm. Saml. Johnson
Roger Sherman

New York

Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey

Wil: Livingston
David Brearley
Wm. Paterson
Jona: Dayton

Pennsylvania

B. Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt. Morris
Geo. Clymer
Thos. Fitzsimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouv Morris

Delaware

Geo: Read
Gunning Bedford Jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom

Maryland

James McHenry
Dan of St. Thos Jenifer
Danl. Carroll

Virginia

John Blair —
James Madison Jr.

North Carolina

Wm. Blount
Richd. Dobbs Spaight
Hu Williamson

South Carolina

J. Rutledge,
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney
Pierce Butler.

Georgia

William Few
Abr Baldwin

WILLIAM JACKSON Secretary.

Attest

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several States pursuant to the fifth article of the original Constitution.

ARTICLE I¹

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof ; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press ; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger ; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb ; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law ; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation ; to be confronted with the witnesses against him ; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

¹ The first ten Amendments were adopted in 1791.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI¹

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII²

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate:—The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

¹ Adopted in 1798.

² Adopted in 1804.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

ARTICLE XIII¹

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV²

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV³

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

¹ Adopted in 1865.

² Adopted in 1868.

³ Adopted in 1870.

INDEX

Diacritic marks : ā as in *late* ; ǎ as in *fat* ; ä as in *far* ; ȁ as in *what* ; aw as in *saw* ; ē as in *me* ; ě as in *met, berry* ; ĕ as in *her* ; ę as in *veil* ; ġ as in *gem* ; ĝ as in *go* ; ĩ as in *mine* ; ĭ as in *tin* ; į as in *police* ; ō as in *note* ; ȯ as in *not* ; oo as in *fool* ; ŝ as in *news* ; ũ as in *tune* ; ů as in *nut* ; ȳ as in *bush* ; y as in *city*. Italic letters are silent.

- Ad'ams, John, 26, 115, 120.
 Adams, John Quincy, 175.
 Adams, Samuel, 20-30, 31, 32.
Al-a-ba'ma, warship, 295, 296, 303.
Alabama Claims, 303.
 A-lās'ka, purchase of, 303.
 Albany (awl'ba-ny), and Erie Canal, 222.
Āl'be-marle, ship, 296.
 Al-ex-an'dri-a, Lee at, 274.
 Al-le-ghe'ny Mountains, 140.
 Allegheny River, 47.
 Al'len, E'than, 56.
 An'der-son-ville, 299.
 An-nap'o-lis, 110.
 An-tiē'tam, battle of, 254, 281.
 Ap-po-mat'tox Court House, surrender at, 255, 270, 286.
 Ar'ling-ton, Lee at, 275.
 Army of the Potomac, 279, 266.
 Army of Virginia, 278, 279.
 Ar'nold, Ben'e-dict, 82, 84-85, 67-68.
 Articles of Confederation, 111-113.
 Ash'land, 181.
 At-lan'ta, captured by Sherman, 267.
- Bar'clay, Captain, 153, 155.
 Bar'ton, Clara, 299-301.
 Bell, Alexander Grā'ham, 315.
 Bel'voir, 42.
 Be'mis Heights, battles of, 84-85.
 Ben'ning-ton, battle of, 78-79.
 Black Hawk War, 230.
Bon Homme Richard (bō-nōm' re-shār'), 107-109.
 Boone, Daniel, 141-147.
- Boone's'bor-ough, 145, 147.
 Boston, "Massacre," 23; "tea party," 24-26; siege of, 34-36, 55, 56.
 Brad'dock, General, 48, 49.
 Bran'dy-wine Creek, 65.
 Brown, John, 245, 276, 277.
 Buck'ner, General, 264.
 Buffa-lo, and Erie Canal, 222.
 Bull Run, battle of, 252; second battle of, 254.
 Bunk'er Hill, battle of, 34-37, 54.
 Bur-goynē', General, 64, 74-79, 83-87.
 Burn'side, General, 281.
 Burr, Aaron, 138.
 But'ler, General, 292.
- Cab'i-net, First, 116.
 Cable, telegraph, 314, 315.
 Calhoun (cāl-hoon'), John C., 197, 199.
 Cal-i-for'ni-a, 187, 189.
 Cām'bridge, 54.
 Cām'den, battle of, 91.
 Can'a-da, 9.
 Cape Brēt'on fisheries, 106.
 Car-nēg'ie, Andrew, 330-335.
 Cä-vī'te, battle of, 325-328.
 Ce'dar Creek', battle of, 269.
 Chads Ford, battle of, 65.
 Chan'cel-lors-ville, battle of, 281.
 Charles'ton, 91.
 Charlottesville (shār'lots-vil), 117; University of Virginia at, 123.
 Chat'ham, 228.
 Chat-ta-noo'ga, 264, 266.
 Che-raw', 94.

INDEX

- Circuit riding, 242.
 Cities, growth of, 305.
 Civil Rights Bill, 303.
 Civil War, 251-256, 262-270, 277-286, 291-299.
 Clark, George Rög'ers, 113.
 Clark, William, 126.
 Clay, Henry, 178-190.
 Clēt'mont, 216-218.
 Clin'ton, De Witt, 220-222.
 Clinton, General Henry, 67, 91.
 Colonies, 9.
 Committees of Correspondence, 22, 24-27.
 Compromise of 1820, 185.
 Compromise of 1850, 189, 202, 245, 246.
 Concord (kōng'kerd), battle of, 33-34.
 Con-es-tō'ga wagons, 183.
 Confederate states, 250, 277.
 Constitution, 115, 135.
Constitution, frigate, 160.
 Continental Congress, 16, 27, 54, 56, 111-113.
 Continental currency, 134.
 Corn-wā'l'is, 58, 61, 63, 69, 91, 93-95.
 Cotton gin, 185, 207-209.
 Cow'pens, battle of, 95.
 Crā'g'ie homestead, 55.
 Creek War, 171-172.
 Critical period, 111-115.
 Crown Point captured, 56.
 Cru'ger, Nicholas, 130.
 Cu'ba, 323-324, 328.
 Cul'pēp-er County, 43.
 Cum'ber-land Gap, 144.
 Cumberland Road, 184.
 Cūsh'ing, Lieutenant, 296, 297.
 Cus'tis, Martha, 50, 52.
 Custis, Mary Randolph, 275.
 Dart'mouth College, 195.
 Dā'vy, Humphry, 224.
 Dear'born, General, 150, 151.
 De-cā'tur, 156, 157.
 Declaration of Independence, 120-122.
 De Kālb', Baron, 163.
 Dent, Julia, 261.
 Dew'ey, George, 324-328.
 Dick'in-son, Charles, 170.
 Dix, Dorothy, 298.
 Dōūg'las, Stephen A., 245, 247-248.
 Dred Scott decision, 246.
 Dun-ferm'line, 330, 335.
 Early (ēr'ly), General Jubal, 268.
 Ed'i-son, Thomas A., 317-321.
 Electric light, 320.
 Emancipation Proclamation, 254, 302.
 Em'er-son, 34.
 England, War of Revolution, 9-109; War of 1812 with, 149-160.
 Era of good feeling, 182.
 Er'ics-son, John, 254.
 E'rie Canal, 219-223.
 Ex'e-ter, N.H., 194.
 Fair'fax, Lord, 42.
 Fair Oaks, battle of, 280.
 Fan'eul Hall, 23.
 Fār'ra-gut, David Glasgow, 288-294.
 Field, Cyrus W., 314.
 Fifteenth Amendment, 303.
 Flag, 81, 105.
 Flam'bor-ough Head, Jones at, 108.
 Flor'i-da, purchase of, 174.
 Foote, 263.
 Fore'man, Judge, 219.
 Fort Dōn'el-son, 263.
 Fort Duquesne (dū-kān'), 47-49.
 Fort Henry, 263.
 Fort Le Boēuf, 45.
 Fort Lee, 61.
 Fort Mimms, 171.
 Fort Necessity, 48.
 Fort Schuyler (skī'ler), 79.
 Fort Stan'wix, 79-82.
 Fort Sum'ter, 251, 277.
 Fort Wāsh'ing-ton, 61.
 Fourteenth Amendment, 303.
 France, ally of America, 107.
 Frank'lin, N.H., 191.
 Franklin, Benjamin, 107, 114, 120, 124.
 Fraunce's tavern, 71.
 Frēd'er-icks-burg, 38; battle of, 281.

INDEX

Free'man's farm, battles of, 84, 85.
 Free Soil'ers, 247.
 French and Indian War, 9, 44-49.
 Fugitive Slave Law, 246.
 Ful'ton, Robert, 213-218.
 Gäge, General, 26, 31, 36.
 Ga-lē'na, Grant at, 262.
 Gates, General, 83-86, 91.
 Ġed'des, James, 220.
 Ġen-e-see' turnpike, 219.
 Ġe-nē'va Award, 303.
 George III, 9, 10, 119.
 Ger'man-town, battle of, 65.
 Get'tys-burg, battle of, 255, 283, 284.
 Ġhent, treaty of, 173.
 Ġist, Christopher, 45, 46, 47.
 Gold, discovery of, 187.
 Golden Hill, battle of, 130.
 Gore, Christopher, 196.
 Go-wä'nus Bay, 57.
 Grant, Ulysses Simpson, 258-273.
 Grässe, Count dē, 69.
 Great Meadows, 47.
 Greenz, Na-than'a-el, 89-97.
 Green'way Court, 43.
 Ġuil'ford Court House, battle of, 95.

Hale, Nathan, 98-102.
 Ham'il-ton, Alexander, 124, 129-139.
 Hamp'ton Roads, 254.
 Han'cock, John, 26, 31, 32, 122.
 Hanks, Nancy, 231.
 Han'o-ver, N.H., 195.
 Har'lem Heights, battle of, 59.
 Har'pers Fer'ry, 276, 277.
 Här'ri-son, William Henry, 151.
 Hayne, Senator, 199.
 Henry, Patrick, 13-19, 118, 119.
 Her'ki-mer, General, 79-80.
 Her'mit-age, 174.
 Hern'don, William H., 242.
 Hoe, Richard M., 321.
 Hook'er, General, 282.
 Hop'kins, Commodore, 104.
 House of Burgesses, 13.
 Howe, E-li'as, 210-212.

Howe, General, in Revolution, 57-61, 64, 65, 67, 83.
 Hull, General, 150, 151.
 Hutch'in-son, Governor, 22, 23.
 Immigration, 305.
 In-di-an-ap'o-lis, 184.
 Indians, and Boone, 143-147.
 Inventions, 205-218, 224-226, 306-321.
 Ir-o-quois' Indians, 74.
 Jack'son, Andrew, 168-177.
 Jackson, General T. J., 280-282.
 Ja-mā'i'ca, 58.
 Jay, John, 114, 116, 135.
 Jeffer-son, Thomas, 117-128.
 John'son, Sarah, 234.
 John'ston, Albert Sidney, 264.
 Johnston, General Joseph E., 280.
 Jones, John Paul, 103-110.
 Kan'sas, 245, 246.
 Kēar'sarge, warship, 295, 296.
 Ken-tuck'y, 142-147.
 Kings Mountain, battle of, 91.
 Knox, Henry, 116.
 Lā-fa-yette', 64, 69, 162-167.
 Lake Champlain (sham-plān'), battle on, 156-159.
 Lake E'rie, battle on, 153-155.
 Law'rence, Captain, 154.
 Lee, General Charles, 67.
 Lee, Major Henry, 93, 96.
 Lee, Robert E., 274-287; at Appomattox, 270, 286.
 Lēth, Jones at, 107.
 Lew'is, Mēr'i-weth-er, 126.
 Lex'ing-ton, battle of, 32.
 Lexington, Kentucky, 180.
 Light, artificial, 317, 320.
 Lin'co/n, Abraham, 230-257.
 Lincoln-Douglas debates, 247.
 Liv'er-more, Mary, 298.
 Liv'ing-ston, Robert R., 120.
 Long Island, battle of, 57-58.
 Lou-i-si-ān'a (loo-), purchase of, 125.

- McClellan, General, 254, 280, 281.
 McCor'mick, Cyrus Hall, 306-308.
 McCreã, Jane, 78.
 McKin'ley, President, 324.
 Mad'i-son, James, 135.
Maine, battleship, 323.
 Mal'vern Hill, 281.
 Ma-nas'sas, battle of, 231.
 Ma-nil'a Bay, battle of, 325-328.
 Mar-cõ'nĩ, 316.
 Mare Island navy yard, 291.
 Mār'i-on, the Swamp Fox, 69.
 Marsh'field, Webster at, 202.
 Māyre, Rev. James, 40.
Mēr'ri-măc and *Monitor*, 253, 294, 295.
 Mex'i-co, war with, 187, 260, 261.
 Mint, 137.
 Min'ute-men, 27.
 Mis-sis-sip'pi River, in Civil War, 264, 291, 292.
 Missouri (mĩ-soo'ri), 185.
 Missouri Compromise, 245.
 Mō-bĩle', in War of 1812, 172.
 Mobile Bay, battle of, 293, 294.
 Molasses Act, 10.
Mōn'i-tor and *Merrimac*, 253, 294, 295.
 Mōn'mouth, battle of, 67, 163.
 Mo-non-ga-he'la River, 47.
 Mon-te-rgy', battle of, 260.
 Mon-ti-cel'lo, 118-119, 127.
 Mor'gan, General, 94-96.
 Mor'ris, Robert, 63.
 Morse, Samuel Finley Breese, 309-316.
 Mount McGrēg'or, Grant at, 272.
 Mount Vernon, 42, 44, 49, 52.
 Na-po'le-on, and Louisiana, 125.
 Nas'sau, capture of, 105.
 Navy, in Revolution, 103-109; in War of 1812, 153-160.
 Nēv'is, Hamilton at, 129.
 New Or'le-ans, battle of, 173; in Civil War, 291-292.
 New York, in Revolution, 57-61; capital, 135; western trade of, 219, 222.
 Nor'to'k, Farragut at, 291.
 Northwest Territory, 114, 185.
 Nueces (nwā'sēs) River, 187.
 O-hi'o, growth of, 182.
 Old Hickory, 174.
 O-nē'das, 74.
 Ordinance of 1787, 114.
 Or'e-gon Country, 126.
 O-ris'ka ny, battle of, 80-81.
 O'tis, James, 10-12, 22.
 Paine, Thomas, 113.
 Pā'lo Āl'to, battle of, 260.
 Paper money, 134.
 Par'lia-ment, 11.
 Pen-in'su-lar Campaign, 280.
 Pen-sa-co'la, 172.
 Pēr'ry, Oliver Hazard, 152-156.
 Pē'ters-burg, siege of, 285.
 Phil-a-del'phi-a, in Revolution, 65, 66; Convention, 114; western trade of, 219.
 Phil'ip-pĩnes, 324-328.
 Phonograph, 320.
 Pick'ett, General, 283, 284.
 Pit'cairn, Major, 31-33.
 Pitts'burg, 49; Carnegie in, 331.
 Pittsburg Landing, battle of, 264.
 Platts'burg, battle of, 158-160.
 Pōr'ter, Captain David, 289, 294.
 Pōr'to Rĩ'co, 328.
 Ports'mouth, N.H., Webster at, 196.
 Po-tō'mac River, 280.
 Prairie schooners, 183.
 Presque Isle (presk ēl'), 45.
 Prince'ton, battle of, 63.
 Put-in-Bay, battle of, 154-155.
 Put'nam, General, 75.
 Queens'town, battle of, 151.
 Railroads, 223-228, 305.
 Ran'dolph, Edmund, 116.
 Rap-i-dan' River, 267, 284.
 Rap-pa-han'nock River, 38.
 Reaper, 306.
 Red Cross Society, 300-301.
 Red Jacket, 166.

- Republican party, 247.
- Rê-vêre', Paul, 31, 32.
- Revolution, causes of, 9-28; War of, 31-36, 54-109, 109-170.
- Rich'mond, siege of, 268, 269, 285, 286, 253.
- Rí'o Grân'de, 187.
- Rochambeau (ro-shâng-bō'), Count, 152.
- Rôch'es-ter, and Erie Canal, 222.
- Rôô'shê-velt, 159-160, 256.
- St. Lëg'ër, 64, 74, 79-83.
- St. Louis (loo'is), Grant at, 260-262.
- Salisbury (sawlz'bêr-i), N.H., 191, 192.
- San'ga-mon River, 238.
- Sanitary Commission, 298.
- Sär'a-nac River, 157.
- Sär-a-tō'ga, surrender at, 65, 85.
- Sa-van'nah, in Revolution, 91; taken by Sherman, 267.
- Schenectady (ske-nëc'ta-dy), 227.
- Schenectady boats, 183.
- Schuyler (skí'ler), Philip, 76-83, 86-87.
- Schuyllkill (skool'kíl) River, 65.
- Scotch-Irish, 140.
- Se-rã'pis, 107-109.
- Seven Days' Battles, 281.
- Sewing machine, 209-212.
- Sharps'burg, battle of, 254, 281.
- Shen-an-do'ah Valley, 42; in Civil War, 268, 269, 280.
- Shër'i-dan, General, 268, 269.
- Sher'man, General, 266-267.
- Sherman, Roger, 120.
- Shí'loh, battle of, 264.
- Signaling, 309.
- Slavery, 184-189, 202, 244-249; ended, 254, 302.
- Sons of Liberty, 130, 132.
- South, the, 249; *see* Civil War.
- South Carolina, and nullification, 176, 185; secession of, 250.
- Spain, war with, 324-328.
- Spoils System, 176.
- Spot Resolutions, 244.
- Spring'field, Lincoln at, 241.
- Stamp Act, 11, 14-16.
- Stamp Act Congress, 21.
- Stark, John, 78-79.
- Stars and Stripes, 81.
- Steamboat, 216-218.
- Steel making, 333-334.
- Stephenson (stê'ven-sun), George, 223-227.
- Stëu'ben, Baron, 66.
- Still'wa-ter, battles of, 84, 85.
- Stu'art, General J. E. B., 260.
- Sÿr'a-cuse, and Erie Canal, 222.
- Tariff, 176, 182, 185, 198.
- Tea tax, 24-26.
- Telegraph, 309-316.
- Telephone, 315.
- Terre Haute (têr'ê-hôt'), 184.
- Tex'as, 260.
- Thirteenth Amendment, 302.
- Ti-con-der-o'ga, 56, 75-76.
- Todd, Mary, 243.
- Tories, 74, 132.
- Tren'ton, battle of, 62.
- Trip'o-li, 157.
- Valley Fôrge, 65, 66.
- Val-pa-tai'so, the *Essex* at, 290.
- Van Bräam', Jacob, 45.
- Van Rëns'sê-laër, General, 150, 151.
- Ve-nan'go, 45.
- Vicks'burg, capture of, 253, 255, 264-266.
- Vir-gin'i-a, in Revolution, 14-18; Jefferson and, 122, 123.
- Wal'la-bout Bay, 57.
- War of 1812, 149-160, 181, 289-290.
- Wash'ing-ton, City of, 160.
- Washington, George, 38-72, 98; and Lafayette, 163; in Constitutional Convention, 114.
- Washington, Colonel William, 93, 95, 96.
- Washington and Lee University, 286.
- Wa-tau'ga River, 142.
- Web'ster, Daniel, 161-204.
- Wee-haw'ken, 139.
- West, growth of, 182.
- West Point Military Academy, 259.

INDEX

- White-hā'ven, Jones at, 107.
- White Plains, battle of, 61.
- Whit'ney, Eli, 205-209.
- Wilderness, battles of the, 268, 285.
- Wil'liams-burg, 13; Jefferson at, 117.
- Wil'ming-ton, 95.
- Wil'mot Proviso, 244.
- Wins'low, Captain, 295.
- Wor'den, Lieutenant, 294, 295.
- Wright, Silas, 312.
- Writs of Assistance, 10, 11.
- Wythe, George, 179.
- York'town campaign, 69-70, 164.



